

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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A Problem of Historical Analogy

BY GEORGE MATTHEW DUTCHER, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, MIDDLETOWN, CONNECTICUT.

In the autumn of 1921, it was the writer's privilege to be invited to give a series of lectures on How the American People Laid the Foundation of their Government before several colleges and universities in China. Though the lecturer studiously refrained from any reference to conditions in China, his hearers were constantly noting analogies between the conditions in the United States preceding the adoption of the Constitution of 1787 and those current in China. The hearers, it might be added, were also seeking to find arguments to apply on the question whether China should be organized as a unitary or as a federal republic. In a number of cases the writer was able to meet small groups of advanced students in history to discuss these questions of historical analogy. The present paper, which embodies the substance of the arguments propounded in these discussions, may be of some interest to teachers of history as a typical problem in historical analogy.

The more important points of similarity in the conditions and problems of the United States in the years preceding 1787 and those of China in the years preceding 1921 which were observed were as follows:

1. The British and Spanish infringements of American independence and efforts to secure portions of American territory through boundary disputes or by means of more far-reaching intrigues suggested the occupation by foreign powers of Chinese ports and the more comprehensive plans to establish spheres of influence or replace Chinese control of the outlying provinces.

2. British and Spanish refusals to make commercial treaties with the United States which should be upon the basis of equality of international rights and which should deal with the United States as a co-ordinate nation, readily suggested the status of China under the existing commercial treaties.

3. As the United States was unable to meet the interest payments on its bonds held in France and the Netherlands, or to provide for the payment of the principal which was comparatively small, so China has appeared as a defaulter of international financial obligations though the amount involved is absurdly small in comparison with the nation's wealth.

4. In the United States the government of the Confederation and in China the Peking authorities have proved equally unable to secure the revenue necessary to meet current expenses.

5. Both governments failed to create a system of sound, uniform currency and coinage or a suitable banking system.

6. Both countries were suffering from the lack of adequate means of transportation and communication, and the governments were both powerless to remedy the situation.

7. Each country suffered from scanty educational facilities, and the government was without competence to supply the need.

8. In each case the national government was a hollow form rather than a substantial reality, and lacked adequate powers and resources to exercise control over matters properly of national concern.

9. In both instances the central government was helpless to deal with the state or provincial governments and to enforce the national authority within the several states or provinces.

While this cumulation of evidence might seem convincing proof that the condition of China in 1921 was similar to that of the United States in 1787 and sufficient warrant for prescribing the same remedies, further consideration revealed the following substantial differences between the two situations and consequently suggested doubts whether the remedies which proved efficacious for the United States will produce similar results for present-day China.

1. The population of the United States in 1787 was not more than one per cent of the present population of China, and the area concerned was also much smaller.

2. The Americans were a new people in a new country, but the Chinese have been settled in their land for thousands of years.

3. The Americans were free (or nearly so) from the burden of feudal traditions and from all the hampering restrictions naturally resulting from such a long established social, economic, and political order as that existing in China. In America, unlike China, there was little power of family, clan, or guild to hamper individualism or to thwart changes of personal status. This freedom and flexibility with reference to individual or personal affairs naturally afforded a greater degree of mobility of society as a whole in its economic and political relations.

4. The United States was entirely free from militarism and practically without any armed force either governmental or unauthorized, whereas China today has under arms the largest number of any country in the world and the military are able to overawe or override the civil authorities.

5. In the United States the governments of the several states were duly established under constitu-

tions and were operating freely and fully in accordance therewith. In China the provincial administrations have little claim to constitutional status, and their operations reveal small consideration for the ordinary canons of law or of political responsibility.

6. The American people enjoyed the same economic and intellectual system and status as Europe. They could not be considered, as a group, deficient or backward in comparison with the most progressive peoples of the world—indeed, they might claim to be in advance of Europe in some respects. On the other hand, China is confronted by the necessity of passing through the tremendous readjustments broadly comprehended in the Phrase Industrial Revolution, and almost equally far-reaching changes in the intellectual life, in order to meet the western nations on an equal footing.

7. The American people had the traditions, the institutions, and the experience of self-government, especially in making their own laws and levying their own taxes; while the Chinese have had little experience to fit them for the privilege and duties of self-government.

8. The principle and practice of majority rule had long been familiar to the American people, but

they are almost complete novelties to the Chinese.

9. The United States was outside the field and movement of world politics. Its soil, resources, and trade were free from foreign control. Today China is the very center and crux of world politics, and under the handicap of foreign control of portions of its natural territory, of much of its natural resources, and of most of its commerce.

10. The whole political and social development of the American people had taken place under Christian influence and they were, in fact, really rooted and grounded in the Christian church. China has not merely not had the privilege of such a Christian inheritance, but has had no single ethical and religious system to serve as a unifying influence or as a motive power.

While reasoning from analogy can seldom afford any degree of certainty for the conclusions this illustration may help to show the uncertainties which beset its use in the historical field. On the other hand it should be observed that the negative arguments against the analogy do not prove that the remedy which worked so well in the case of the American people might not cure some or all the ills of the Chinese body-politic.

The Relation of Geography to the Social Studies in the Curriculum

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH. D., LINCOLN SCHOOL OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

What is geography? A simple question this, but one so fundamental to establishing the relations of this subject to the other studies in the curriculum that it must be disposed of before we can proceed very far with our inquiry. Let us try to answer it in the words of those who are best qualified to speak—the geographers themselves. We should distinguish at the outset between geography as it is and as it is taught—for in justice to the quotations which follow, there is in the minds of those who are speaking, a wide gulf fixed between the geographical concepts which they represent and the so-called geography that is to be found in the curriculum. It is apparently to the latter that they refer when they say "it consists of a little of everything which cannot conveniently be placed elsewhere;"¹ "it is a hodge podge of all the sciences,"² "it was easily accused of touching everything without having a definite field and an organizing principle of its own."³

Although they are quite insistent that "there is no longer room for a conglomerate geography"¹ and that "geography is no longer an inventory but a history," "no longer an enumeration but a system."⁴ These pronouncements are only reflected in part in the chief means possessed by the teacher or school administrator for interpreting the subject—namely, the textbooks. An examination of any one of them impresses the impartial critic with the vast and comprehensive collection of data to be found within their

covers, data from the fields of science, history, government, industry, commerce, sociology, psychology and economics. He may well believe that "there are no facts or phenomena which are the exclusive property of geography."¹ He may even go farther and assume that the geographer is equally at home in such widely different fields as those of pure science and ethnology.

He is quite ready to admit with the geographers themselves "the obscurity that invests the whole matter of content"¹ and the necessity of splitting up its materials and placing them in their appropriate departments.² Says one of our leading geographers on this point in a letter to the writer: "The teachers of geography are dissatisfied with the type of geographic instruction which they have been able to provide and with most or all of the textbooks at their disposal. Even the better and more recent textbooks have failed adequately to provide the sort of material for which these lay teachers of the subject are groping."

It is just because of this situation that geography is in a perilous position at the present time. Tradition will enable it to maintain its place in many of our schools for some time to come as education is notorious for being one of the strongholds of conservatism. It will only be a question of time before it yields its place either wholly or in part to other

subjects which can lay a better claim to recognition in a curriculum already overcrowded.

Such a situation is hardly comprehensible when we appraise the actual progress which has been made in the field of geography under the leadership of such men as Professors Atwood, Brigham, McFarlane, McMurry, Russell, Smith, Whitbeck and a host of others we might name. Much of this progress, however, has been without any influence upon the public school. Like the scene about the Tower of Babel, it has resulted in a confusion of tongues, complicating a situation which has already involved to a point where almost anything could pass muster as content or method. Within the last generation we have heard the relative merits proclaimed of first political, then physical, later commercial, later still industrial, and now regional and human geography. Each has had its vogue; each its advocates. And strange as it may seem, each has helped to clarify the situation. It is, however, most unfortunate that the public school has had to wait so long upon the expert to organize his own thinking and to translate his findings into terms of public education. To quote again from a teacher of geography at one of our leading universities: "Unfortunately not a few of the leading geographers of the country, both University men and men in Government service, appear to be interested but little in the problems of the secondary and elementary schools."

When doctors disagree the patient is in grave danger, and the apparent disagreement or rather the desire to satisfy every possible demand that the subject may make upon the broad field of knowledge, has not only seriously imperilled its status but has disgusted the patients for whom it would prescribe. Their dose has been a nauseating one and its after-effects have been disagreeable in the extreme; and they now are considering the doctor's dismissal.

The situation was brought home to the writer in connection with the work of the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship. Assuming that geography belonged to the social studies group and believing that the claims of instruction in citizenship called for a rapprochement between history and the other social studies that were clamoring for recognition, an effort was made to secure from those most interested in these fields a formulation of minimal requirements. Nothing but empty promises were forthcoming from the geographers, and when the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, who had included geography in their tentative program of 1917, came to ascertain how far their own aims and proposals harmonized with those put forth by the newer committee, geography did not have a single advocate. Not one constructive idea was offered in this field and there was no one in the group who showed very much concern about it. In consideration of the large number of boys and girls involved and the time devoted to the subject—time and effort consecrated by tradition—it would appear on first thought that its friends had assumed that geography's place in the curriculum was as irrevocably fixed as

the proverbial laws of the Medes and Persians or as that of the three R's. This last comparison as we know is misleading from the standpoint of these subjects. Experimentation is well under way toward the reduction of the time given to these fundamental tool subjects and the results of this work are already discernible in some of the more progressive curricula.

This situation is the more strange in the light of the interest aroused in geography during the war—and the geographers had much to say about this—but here again was an apparent failure to capitalize this interest and make its influence lasting by a carefully planned attack upon the curriculum problem. The war will soon be but a memory for the bulk of our school population—changing as it does every decade—and therefore as difficult to utilize for purposes of motivation or instruction as the Spanish-American War or even the Persian Wars of blessed memory. Such courses as have been evolved have seemed on their face to be of the most transitory character and have usually involved from a half year to a year devoted to the history of the war and its geographical setting.

Whatever geography may yield of value to the special investigator in the field, its contribution to the citizenship demands of the schools must be specific and concrete. Taught as it is through the seventh and sometimes into the eighth grades, its *raison d'être* must be established beyond question. This is especially true in the light of the junior high school movement which is fast gaining momentum, for this means moving secondary education back into the seventh grade, and offering curriculum so rich and varied that it will not only minister to the child's natural craving for wider contacts with life but will do much toward shaping his work in the senior high school, to say nothing of its influence upon his choice of a career, or his power to adjust himself to the world about him.

With the demand for a sane kind of vocational guidance in the junior high school cycle, is it not natural to look to economic geography with its emphasis upon industries and commerce and the occupation of men for a large and important contribution? A certain amount of geography would appear to be almost a *sine qua non* for the intelligent understanding of the world of business and industry. These and other demands upon the subject make imperative the reduction of this complicated fraction of the curriculum to terms which make it more usable and the evolution of a definition which will be intelligible to the humblest teacher.

This question of a definition in reality involves a twofold problem. Geography, if it really possesses educational value, should represent not only a body of subject matter but a method peculiar to itself and worthy of transmission to others. There should not only be left in the minds of pupils a residuum of useful, thought-provoking knowledge but a technique, an attitude, a power, which will materially assist the student in his contact with the real problems of life.

Has such a content been evolved? Light has

already been thrown upon this query by quotations from the geographers themselves. Does it suffice to say with one of them, that "it is a mere assembling of facts from diverse fields, facts joined together by the sole bond of a common locality" and insist that "whether we deride or apologize for this aggregation of facts, call it mere description, mere compilation, mere this or mere that (whatever it is, it is always mere), the humble task must still be performed, before higher work is possible." ⁵ The impression this leaves upon the mind is that we are still in the infancy of the subject; that we are but pioneers in an uncharted field. Certainly this offers no sure guide to our teacher friend. When we are told that "there are no facts or phenomena which are the exclusive property of geography" and that "the subject has therefore a different basis from all other branches of learning except philosophy" ⁶ we feel even more hopeless of a working definition which will prove intelligible to the rank and file of its exponents in the schools.

The situation on the side of content is not, as we know, as hopeless as these statements would seem to indicate, but before presenting the material on the other side let us raise the question as to the interest which this problem possesses for the student or teacher of history or government. Why should he not be content to leave geography to shift for itself? The reasons are not far to seek. Let the geographers themselves speak. One is the result perhaps of this very failure to prescribe limits to the field. "If we extend the domain of geography too far," says our geographer friend, "we run the risk of leaving it altogether and running more than once into political economy and history;" ⁷ and again, "human history is deeply rooted in the material things of the earth." ⁸ The historian himself realizes this close and intimate relationship; such books as those of Miss Semple, ⁹ Professors Brigham, ¹⁰ George, ¹¹ and Fairgreve, ¹² bear witness to it. The emphasis in our schools upon the social bases of all development drives the teacher of history and economics back again and again into the field of geography. Some one must lay these foundations and lay them well. Is it the lone and single-handed task of the teacher of history? We think not.

History has been variously defined in the past, but there is no better concept for the class room teacher to bear in mind than that expressed in the phrase *wie es eigentlich gewesen ist*, or better still, *geworden ist*. The task of the historian on the side of content is then to ascertain what really mattered in the past. In securing this data he naturally devises a technique which constitutes the method element in the subject. In actual practice this method element has been very much neglected, and the historian, like the geographer, has been too much concerned with securing the lodgment of worth while information. Where something more is sought—something which will make for thinking capacity, the teacher has been too prone to accept the appearance for the reality, seeing in discussion alone the outcomes desired, rather than seeking to inculcate a method, which alone commands power. Realizing how slow is the process by which

these ideas have filtered down (and are still filtering down) to the schools we should not be too hasty in our condemnation of a lack of progress in the related field of geography. Just because it is a related field we must demand an appraisal here and an adequate formulation of content and method. The work in geography is so fundamental to successful work in history and the historian's task is so gigantic even with these rather simple objectives to attain that much of this work must be left to his fellow craftsman. He should be able to assume that if left there it will often be better done. Then, too, it would seem that this kind of repetition—if repetition it be—of facts in their different relationships make for better learning and a greater economy in learning, which is no small factor in the situation.

The close relation which exists between history and geography has been so admirably stated by Professor Ramsay Muir in his address to the Historical Association of England that we quote the following brief extracts:

"Man, the industrial animal, wresting his livelihood and his luxuries from the earth, Geography can tell us much about, though not all; man, the conquering animal, enslaving his neighbors, Geography can tell us something about, though not very much; man, the social being, striving in co-operation with his fellows towards a state of society which shall fulfil his perpetually enlarging conception of Justice, Geography can tell us very little about—it can only give us the setting and framework, the physical aids and obstacles to his moral strife; man, the religious being, freeing his soul from the shackles of the material that it may lose itself in the supra-material. Geography can tell us almost nothing about. And it is with man, the social being, and his strivings towards justice that we as historians are primarily concerned. We must not reject the aid the geographers can give us; but equally we must not allow them to reduce the greatness of our theme, and to rob it of its supreme value as a means for the enrichment of life. That is a danger which historical teachings runs so soon as ever it encourages its pupils to rest content with purely geographical explanations." . . . "The conclusion of the whole matter is, that intimate as the two subjects are, they are and must remain distinct, since even when they consider the same subject matter, they consider it from different points of view. History is concerned with the evolution of organized societies, pursuing an ideal of Justice; and though the fortunes of these societies are deeply affected by geographical factors, these effects are far from being the most important considerations in the historian's eye. Geography is concerned with the earth's crust regarded as the home of man, and all its emphasis must be laid upon these physical compulsions from which History shows him laboring to escape. Both are great subjects and invaluable as instruments of mental and moral discipline. It is permissible to hold different opinions as their relative value for these purposes. It is not permissible to

throw down the boundaries between them, or to treat either merely as an appendage of the other."¹³

Enough has been said perhaps as to the intimate relation that geography bears to history and the similarity in the problem which each presents from the standpoint of curriculum making. To what point have the specialists in this field carried their analysis of the subject matter in terms of the public school? The most promising of these investigations are in what is called the field of human geography and this is a field which in the thought of its investigators bears a very close relation to the field of history, for, says one of them, "it is impossible to be a good *human geographer* without a thorough historical, economic and philosophical training."¹⁴ On the other hand, this same authority insists that human geography is first of all geography and not psychology, sociology or history.¹⁵ What is it in the words of its advocates? "The way people live in different parts of the world and why?" "Physical features, climate, resources are all to be studied in the light of their influence on the life of the people, that is to say, the facts within the limits of physical geography which are related more or less directly to man and to human activity form its content. One of the clearest exponents of this phase of geography which seems to promise so much for the "lay teacher" in the grades, Professor Brunhes reduces the whole problem to three groups of six essential facts—facts which closely relate themselves to the life and experiences of children in the early grades. They also represent much that is dramatic in the physical world in its relation to man. The first group relate to the unproductive occupation of the earth by man, leaving its traces in the house and the road; the second includes the facts as to plant and animal conquest; and the third the facts as to their destructive exploitation at his hands. To these later groups belong the story of man's efforts to make the plant and animal worlds yield to his will, and supply his needs, in other words, plant and animal conquest. Finally, this destructive exploitation or *Rauberei*, as the German scholars designate it, applies to plant and animal devastation on the one hand, and mineral exploitation on the other.

The same idea, but not reduced to elements which are at the same time elementary in character and yet make a strong appeal to the imagination, has been presented in Huntington and Cushing's recent book, *The Principles of Human Geography*.¹⁶ This aspect of the field comes as a veritable revelation to the "lay" teacher; it makes geography take on a new aspect. In addition it commends itself to the student of curriculum reorganization. Messrs. Huntington and Cushing have analyzed the material on a different plan, recognizing that certain physical conditions have their effect upon life, this life in turn manifests itself in plants and animals, and these again relate themselves to man. Their relationships are conceived as "human responses" which are classified under the headings, material needs, occupations, efficiency, and higher needs. Among those geographical conditions which minister directly or indirectly to these last

named are density of population, degree of prosperity, degree of energy, local differences in interests or resources, and degree of isolation.

Whether we accept these definitions of content as adequate and satisfactory in meeting curriculum demands they certainly are suggestive and promising in the light of the demands made upon geography as a social study. In the light of citizenship requirements it would seem that geography's place should be determined primarily in terms of its contributions as a social subject. Its purely scientific aspects will be well taken care of; they are bound to be so cared for by the advocates of general science. The human element must be the central theme in its presentation if it is to maintain an important place in the curriculum. Other phases can well be left to the upper grades.

On the basis of such an analytical appraisal as these scholars have given us, the time would seem to be ripe for developing a "course" in geography, whereby the pupil is led from say the human phase, into the commercial, industrial or physical aspects of the field as the case may be. Geography classes in an elective high school curriculum will be recruited on the basis of an interest already established and a foundation already laid in earlier grades. That is what makes this preliminary work—if it may be so described—so fundamental from the point of view of the subject as a field of investigation and study in later years.

Not only have the workers in this field a content to suggest but they have also begun to devise a technique or method. This has its clearest exponent in Professor Brunhes, who not only emphasizes the part played by observation classification, etc., but proposes a form of regional study in the so-called "islands." He insists that these represent more or less complete geographical units, lending themselves admirably to an understanding and appreciation of the "six facts." We discern here the regional aspect of geography which has many advocates but applied in a way to commend itself to a master of the technique of teaching.

It would be presumptuous in a student of history to propose any course, even along the lines suggested by these writers, but the prospects of an effective co-operation or co-ordination of the social studies seem brighter when we consider the direction in which these studies and definitions are tending.¹⁷ A geographer like Mr. Fairgreve also makes a very real contribution when he lays down the principle of geographic control,¹⁸ suggesting the possibilities of a course for the VIIth and VIIIth grades paralleling that proposed by the Committee on History and Education for Citizenship which provides for a world survey at this point.

What is the next step to be taken by those interested in this problem? For the teacher of geography on the firing line it is to acquaint herself with these newer definitions and to have the courage to revise and eliminate and reorganize from year to year on the basis of her classroom experiences and reactions. The chief burden, however, rests upon the geogra-

phers themselves. They must reduce to simple terms the educational possibilities which they see inherent in the subject so that they may be readily grasped. A definition must be phrased in terms of its special, peculiar contribution to the education of our young people. The geographer, like the historian, must wield a rifle and not a shotgun. He must know what he is aiming at and must not trust to a stray shot or shots to reach the mark. He must stake his claims in terms of minimal requirements which impress the educator by their very reasonableness and their recognition of the claims of other closely related subjects, being careful not to ask for an excessive allotment of time. He must cease expecting the subject to shift for itself or wait upon his good time for the attention which it deserves. If he does not assert its claims and that in no uncertain language the leadership of the reorganization movement so far as it concerns geography will pass into other hands and possibly to the prejudice of subject matter and its place in the curriculum.

The work performed by the National Council of Geography Teachers and their stimulating organ the *Journal of Geography* should not be discounted, but a *Journal* will not suffice. Action on the part of the geographers in the form of tentative syllabi is imperative and this action must not be long postponed.

Let alternative schemes be suggested as a basis for further experimentation, but the day of wishy-washy compromise schemes has passed. Uncertainty on the part of the specialist breeds uncertainty on the part of others, and certainty can come only from more careful experimentation.

¹ Fairbanks, H. W. *New Definition of Geography* in *Journal of Geography*, May, 1919, p. 186.

² Stanley Hall, quoted by Fairbanks, *New Definition, &c.*

³ Brunhes, J., *Human Geography*, 1920 (Rand, McNally), p. 46.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

⁵ Professor Fenneman in *Journal of Geography*, April, 1919, pp. 149, 150.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Fairbanks, *supra* p. 187.

⁷ Brunhes, p. 215.

⁸ Brunhes, p. 44.

⁹ Semple, Ellen C., *American History and its Geographic Conditions*, 1903 (Houghton).

¹⁰ Brigham, A. P., *Geographic Influences in American History*, 1903 (Ginn).

¹¹ George, H. B., *Relations of Geography and History*, 1901 (Oxford).

¹² Fairgreve, *Geography and World Power*, 1917 (Dutton).

¹³ *History*, Vol. I., 1912, pp. 54-56.

¹⁴ Brunhes, pp. 34-35.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

¹⁶ Published in 1921, by John Wiley & Sons.

¹⁷ Brunhes, p. 52. Chaps. VI-VII.

¹⁸ Fairgreve, *Geography and World Power*.

Preparation of Teachers of the Social Studies for the Secondary Schools¹

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I. INTRODUCTION

It is no longer necessary to argue the fact that we live in a new world; it is recognized by all who have eyes to see and minds to understand. But this new world is as yet unorganized; it is not rooted in experience for the average man; it is still unstable, and its movements are uncertain. There is none of the confidence which comes from traveling beaten paths and following the precedents set by the fathers. Many of the very principles of the new world are new, and we need to be habituated to them.

Education is the process of handing down to the rising generation the wisdom and experience of the generations that have gone before, and of training the youth to walk in the paths in which the fathers have walked, in so far as these paths have seemed to serve the best purposes best. Now, as mankind is hesitatingly turning into new paths here and there, it is all the more necessary that the most careful attention be given to the points of departure and the reason for departing from the old ones. If the new generations are to think about industry, government, and society in general in terms of the new democracy, it is of the utmost importance that the definitions of this new democracy be explained to the growing youth

with all the care and thoroughness of which we are capable.

However new the principles to be taught, the need of teaching the bases of the society in which one lives is certainly not new. It has been recognized by every seeing man since history began to be recorded. Aristotle says:

"But of all things which I have mentioned that which most contributes to the permanence of constitutions is the adaptation of education to the form of government, and yet in our day this principle is universally neglected. The best laws, though sanctioned by every citizen of the State, will be of no avail unless the young are trained by habit and education in the spirit of the constitution."

One might very well think it is the voice of a twentieth century leader. From the earliest writers to the most recent the demand has been reiterated that the youth be trained in order that the State may be safe; and from the earliest times to the most recent the demand has been ignored. This was true before the enormous difficulties which democracy brings became so pressing. How much more urgent is civic education now!

Education in citizenship is so universally demanded now that the reader will ask why this effort to prove the obvious. Everyone is saying that the youth must

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be educated in the duties and responsibilities of democratic citizenship. Like those of old who cried "Peace, Peace," when there was no peace, so our contemporaries cry for education in citizenship when there is but little of it to be found. This may seem an unwarrantedly pessimistic statement, but the reader is asked to be patient in forming his judgment as to its truth. If it is true that there can be no education where there are no teachers; and if it is true that teachers are persons who are trained for their tasks; then the statement is not so pessimistic as it sounds. But if one concede that it is too pessimistic, and if one substitute the statement that there is need of far more attention to the serious task of training for citizenship, even then the further statement is sufficiently introduced, namely, far greater attention must be given to the preparation of those who are to train for citizenship than is now given.

President Angell, of Yale University, was recently quoted as saying to a division of the National Civic Federation:

"The most compelling needs of American education at the present moment are, first, increasing provision for teacher training, both quantitatively and qualitatively. . . . The first thing is to set up in the schools and colleges the machinery for the proper training of teachers. And this equipment must be accompanied by a change in the common public attitude toward the profession of teaching."

This is a fine and true statement, and since it comes from the head of a great university which until very recently had given little attention to this important matter, it is particularly encouraging.

It is not the purpose of this paper to outline a system of training for teachers of the social studies. Its purpose is to call attention to the main outstanding defects of the present system with sufficient definiteness to strengthen the demand that concrete changes be made in the present educational practice.

Mr. Gladstone once said that anyone in the House of Commons may become popular by demanding economy, but let some one demand some particular economy if he wishes to feel the hand of chastisement, and that promptly. So is he who advocates educational efficiency in general terms generously approved. It is decidedly unusual in our universities for definite steps to be taken jointly by the departments of economics, government, history, sociology, and the school of education, to work out a program of teacher training for the social studies. Nevertheless, it is only from the great universities that leadership in this matter may rightly be expected.

The argument of this paper is simple and elementary. It does not presume to outline courses of study. It accepts the course of study which is already backed by the support of the leading students of the problems involved in the making of curricula. The tasks of these students are already difficult enough, made so in part by the fact that specialists fail to recognize that all the various academic interests can not make separate courses of study and impose them upon the schools. All that the paper hopes to do is to play the part of the sunglass and to collect such

rays of knowledge as we have and direct them with some concentrated force on one small spot. This spot is the question: *Why are the universities not training teachers of the social studies for the secondary schools?*

First is taken up the question, What are the social studies? So long as it is assumed that history is all of the social studies the elements of the others will be neglected as they are now. After an effort at definition of these studies as it is formulated in educational practice, the present neglect to present the subject matter of these studies to prospective teachers is reviewed. Then follows an examination of training in the methods of teaching. Finally, some space is given to one grave defect in the practice of the school administrators—the granting of what are called blanket certificates, which certify to little or nothing. Some conclusions are appended, and a brief statement is offered as a concrete illustration of a well-developed system of teacher training.

II. WHAT ARE THE SOCIAL STUDIES?

It is necessary to undertake a definition of the term social studies as it is applied in secondary education, if this discussion of the training of the teacher is to be usefully definite. An able teacher of history in a large city high school was recently asked if he did not think more time should be found for the social studies in the high schools of his city. His reply was, "I don't see how we can find it without leaving out some of the history and I am opposed to reducing the amount of history offered." His error is no unusual one. The expression "history and the social studies" is so common as to be almost the usual thing where discussion in this field is popular rather than scientific. In fact the impression is common among professors and teachers of history that the other social studies are making an effort to crowd history out of its rightful heritage.

The term civics, when used to designate one social study, is a source of much confusion and indefiniteness. At one moment one hears of "civics, economics, and history"; at the next some one uses the term civics as if it included not only the elements of government, economics, and sociology, but also a good deal of ethics, psychology, and other subjects as well. There seem to be such things as "economic civics," "vocational civics," and "community civics." This apparent confusion or contradiction of ideas among the advocates of the teaching of civics is one of the reasons why the teachers of history stand on the defensive against any surrender of time to the apostles of "social science." A teacher not long ago said, "I have been exerting every ounce of influence I have to secure the requirement of vocational civics from all first-year pupils in the city system." When asked some detailed questions he said, substantially, "No; we have no satisfactory textbooks, teachers, or methods of instruction, but if we start requiring the subject these will come." The history teacher objects to this order of procedure.

It is no part of the purpose of this paper to discuss the comparative importance of history and civics or economics or any other of the subjects which are

included in the social studies. Possibly the best exposition of the term civics is to be found in Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 23. What is needed for the present discussion is such a delimitation of the content of the social studies as will make it possible to consider the preparation in subject matter to be given a teacher in this field. Such a delimitation requires that a position be taken on the question. Is history one of the social studies? It further requires a recognition of the fact that the elements of economics, government, and sociology are included under the term social studies. If it be true that the social studies consist of the elements of economics, government, history, and sociology, then the practice of training teachers for the secondary schools in history alone, or economics alone, or government alone is as wrong as it would be to train them in geometry alone, or algebra alone, or trigonometry alone, neglecting the other branches of secondary school mathematics.

How shall one determine the meaning of this educational expression "social studies"? It is necessary to appeal to usage and authority.

The National Education Association is the principal organization of American teachers and school administrators, and the usage of the National Education Association is as nearly authoritative as can be discovered in American education.

In the field of the social studies the National Education Association speaks through its Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. This commission is subdivided into several committees, one of which bears the title the Committee on Social Studies in Secondary Education.

From the standpoint of content, how does the Committee on the Social Studies in Secondary Education define its field? The answer to this question is to be found in the committee's report which appeared as Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 28. This document was prepared as a preliminary report for purposes of wider discussion than could be secured without a fairly definite expression of the committee's platform. But after five years of criticism, destructive and constructive, by individuals and committees, and after experimental teaching based on the program in various parts of the country, the committee finds no reason for materially changing its recommendations. This report of 1916 may therefore be regarded as more nearly than any other document an expression of the opinion of the teachers of the country and of the school administrators.

It is not necessary to go into the details of the course of study proposed by the committee of the National Education Association. The vertebræ of the course outlined in the report of the committee are the following:

Junior high-school cycle (years 7-9):

European history.

American history.

Civics.

Senior high-school cycle (years 10-12):

European history.

American history.

Problems of democracy—Economic, political, social.

It would appear that history occupies two-thirds of the course, that there are four years of history out of the six; and that there are two years in which the elements of economics, government, and sociology are to be taught. From a superficial reading of the outline, one might suppose that what will be needed is a teacher of European history, one for American history, and a third for the remaining subjects. But the selection of teachers on the basis of such a supposition would defeat the purposes of the program. The expressions European and American history, with the other titles, are used for purposes of descriptive suggestions, because they are the common terms and because no more satisfactory ones are now available. They must be explained to some extent here in order that the errors of those who would keep subjects sharply separated may be avoided.

In the first place each of the three-year cycles is a unit of instruction. It is assumed that each is to be required of every pupil. The three-year course may be called history, or civics, or problems of democracy. There is no satisfactory expression for it. The basis of the arrangement is the belief that the pupil should pursue a study of what civilization is, historically considered; given an opportunity to become acquainted more intimately with civilization as it has developed in America; and made acquainted with the organization of the life in which he is now living.

There are those who would depart from what seems to be the chronological or the logical arrangement of these cycles; they would begin the study of modern problems first and work backward into the history. For the purposes of this discussion of the training of the teacher their proposal is not vital. This section is to support the thesis that all teachers of social studies must be trained in the subject matter of economics, government, and history, at least, if not of sociology and psychology as well. The thesis rests on the fact that each of these cycles, whether taught in the order given above or not, is a unit; that it demands familiarity, on the part of the teacher, with the leading principles of sound social organization; and that, therefore, whatever is done with the social studies, the teacher must have control of these principles.

Altogether aside from the fact that in a majority of the high schools of the country one or two teachers must do all of the work in the department of the social studies, and must therefore be familiar with all of them, the very character of each of the courses out of which these cycles is made up is such that the teacher of each of the courses, if he did no other teaching, would be obliged to bring preparation in all of the social studies if he is to do his work effectively. In substantiation of this claim, let each of the courses be briefly considered.

By European history none of the committees means an intensive study of Europe as a separate exercise. Some authors speak of the study of the civilization

our ancestors brought to America; some of a study of modern civilization and its background; others use other expressions; but the basic idea is a study of the origin and development of human industry and society. It might have been better to have called the two courses which introduce the two cycles "history," with no limiting adjective. There are those, whose opinion can not be ignored, who would call both the first and second year of each cycle "history." Whatever term is used for either of these courses, or for both of them, the fact should be kept clear that preparation to teach either of them is not completed when a body of specialized facts in the history of some one country in some one or more periods has been mastered.

The general character of the work had in mind by the members of the committee, and of the training in subject matter the committee would expect teachers to have, can best be illustrated by a quotation from what the report of 1916 has to say about the course for the last year of the senior high school:

"It is generally agreed that there should be a culminating course of social study in the last year of the high school, with the purpose of giving a more definite, comprehensive, and deeper knowledge of some of the vital problems of social life, and thus of securing a more intelligent and active citizenship. Like the preceding courses, it should provide for the pupils' 'needs of present growth,' and should be founded upon what has preceded in the pupils' education, especially through the subjects of civics and history.

"Conflicting claims for the twelfth year. One fact stands out clearly in the present status of the twelfth-year problem, namely, the variety of opinion as to the nature of the work that should be offered in this year. Not to mention the claims of history, the principal claimants for position are political science (government, "advanced civics"), economics, and sociology in some more or less practical form.

"A profitable course could be given in any one of these fields, provided only it be adapted to secondary-school purposes. Three alternatives seem to present themselves:

"1. To agree upon some one of the three fields.

"2. To suggest a type course in each of the three fields, leaving the choice optional with the local school.

"3. To recommend a new course involving the principles and materials of all three fields, but adapted directly to the immediate needs of secondary education.

"The traditional courses in civil government are almost as inadequate for the last as for the first year of the high school. Efforts to improve them have usually consisted of only slight modifications of the traditional course or of an attempted simplification of political science. The results have not met the needs of high school pupils nor satisfied the demands of economists and sociologists.

"A justifiable opinion prevails that the principles of economics are of such fundamental importance that they should find a more definite place in high-school instruction than is customary. Courses in economics

are accordingly appearing in the high-school curriculums with increasing frequency. To a somewhat less degree, and with even less unanimity as to nature of content, the claims of sociology are being pressed. A practical difficulty is presented by the resulting complexity of the course of study. The advocates of none of the social sciences are willing to yield wholly to the others; nor is it justifiable from the standpoint of the pupil's education to limit his instruction to one field of social science to the exclusion of others. The most serious difficulty, however, is that none of the social sciences, as developed and organized by the specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

"Is it not time, in this field as in 'history, to take up the whole problem afresh, freed . . . from the impressions of 'the traditional social sciences'?"

The emphasis laid here on the fact that each of the three-year cycles is one continuous course may lead one to fear that the contributions of some one of the subjects included in the social studies will be ignored or may be in danger of being ignored. This danger can, of course, be avoided only if the teacher is trained in economics, government, history, and sociology, whatever the course of study may be. The teacher who is trained only in historical research will not teach government or economics to his pupils.

However often the word "history" may be entered in the program, the teacher who has studied only government will not give the pupil the contribution which the historically trained teacher would give. Our economic organization will be neglected inevitably unless those who administer the social studies are trained in the universities in economics. The fact should be emphasized, therefore, that there is being organized for the schools a course of study which is not exclusively history or government or economics, but all of them together; that in most schools this course will almost certainly be administered and taught by one teacher, or a very small group of teachers; that this course is our reliance if we would train for citizenship in a democracy; and that it will be a failure and a disgrace to our educational system unless a serious effort is made to prepare teachers for it.

Among associations of university scholars and departmental teachers interested in the social studies, no body has worked more constructively than has the American Historical Association. The reports of the several committees which have appeared in the past few decades have largely determined the development of the teaching of history in the secondary schools, and there has been until very recently but little done with the other social studies. The great body of effective teachers of the social studies in the high schools are history teachers, and it is from them that the demand comes for a further development of the teaching of economics and government.

The most recent committee of the American Historical Association worked under the chairmanship of

Prof. Joseph Schafer, with Dr. D. C. Knowlton as secretary. After several years of study, correspondence, travel, and discussion in all parts of the country, this committee expressed itself as substantially in accord with the report of 1916. This does not mean that these two committees were in entire accord in all their recommendations. It does not mean even that the members of either of the committees are all in accord in all of the recommendations of either committee. It means merely that the recommendations of the report of 1916 seem to have larger support than any other single body of recommendations; and that, until some other set of proposals replaces them, they may be considered the standard. It should be kept in mind, however, that while the movement is away from a program, made up exclusively of history, the recommendations of the committee of seven of the American Historical Association are in use probably in more schools than any other course of study.

III. FAILURE TO PREPARE TEACHERS IN SUBJECT MATTER

In order to ascertain what is the prevailing practice in those institutions of higher learning which undertake to train teachers for the secondary schools, a questionnaire was sent by the Bureau of Education to a large number of colleges and universities. With the inquiry blanks, the Commissioner of Education sent the following note:

"Through the efforts of various agencies a general agreement as to what work in history and the social sciences should be required of students in the secondary schools has been reached. Before any program for the teaching of history and the social sciences in secondary schools can actually be carried out, however, it will be necessary for the normal schools, colleges, and universities to provide adequate training for prospective teachers of these subjects . . . With the purpose of obtaining information concerning the character of the training given, the appended questionnaire has been prepared. Will you kindly have it filled and returned to me."

From the replies received, 100 of the fullest and most definite were selected for statistical examination. Many of those which were discarded came from institutions which are frankly doing nothing for the prospective teacher.

It is no secret that effective secondary-school teachers are trained chiefly in the colleges and universities; yet the great majority of such institutions are making no serious effort to perform their duty in contributing to a better state of affairs. It is not intended to single out the colleges for special criticism, as if they were sinners above their fellow public servants, but secondary-school teachers must be drawn chiefly from among college graduates; if the present sad conditions are to be changed, the practice of colleges must in many cases be changed. What are these conditions?

What courses in the subject matter of the social studies—economics, government, history, sociology—do the colleges and universities offer to the prospective secondary-school teacher?

More than a fourth of the 100 selected replies left

this question unanswered. Among those which did answer it there is so wide a variety of replies that no prevailing practice can be discovered. We have no standardized preparation on which the schoolmen may depend. One institution thinks the prospective teacher should take the regular introductory courses in economics, government, and history. Another says he should include 36 units of history and 36 units of the other social studies in meeting the requirement of 120 units for the bachelor's degree. Five think he should complete four years of history (presumably three hours a week, totaling 24 units) and two years of the other subjects (12 units). Some say he should take "as much history and government as possible," but fail to mention economics or sociology. One thinks the candidate's whole time for three years should be devoted to training in the subject matter of his chosen field, but among the social studies this reply includes psychology, ethics and literature. It would be useless to list here a series of replies in which no agreement or principle of action is discoverable.

The colleges and universities were asked what work is *required* in the subject matter of the social studies from those who are to be recommended as secondary-school teachers?

About half of the 100 selected replies left this question blank. Among those which replied, one-third require *only history*. At these institutions the requirement varies from 6 to 36 units. These make no mention of the other subjects, and offer no explanation of the narrow and specialized requirement. Several others require a little economics *or* government. Two require economics *and* government.

It is perfectly clear that the college career of prospective teachers of the social studies is not directed. Those who are to enter the medical, legal, or engineering profession are fully advised as to what they should do; but those who are to undertake the teaching profession are left, in nearly all cases, to drift forward toward a bachelor's degree electing at random on the basis of personal fondness for teachers, the reputation of courses as easy or difficult, and the other elements which it is well known determine the choice of students who have no curriculum laid out for them.

Some quotation from the answers may be as useful as statistics to indicate the general attitude of the institutions from which they come.

A Middle Western State university says:

"We follow the requirements of the State examining board—3 majors of not less than 18 semester hours each in three high-school subjects or groups of related subjects. However, the scarcity of teachers makes this requirement purely ideal. In practice we have to throw many requirements to the winds."

A New England university expects prospective teachers to have completed two or three years in the university, if they are to be recommended by the university, but the work to be done in these two or three years is not specifically determined.

One New England college for women views with alarm the encroachment of civics on history—ancient, medieval, and modern. The person who replies does

not say that economics and government should be left out of the secondary school program, but it is evident that she looks upon history as *the* social study.

Another New England college for women, from which a large number of graduates go directly into the secondary schools, says: "There is no normal course given here, and we have no requirements along these lines."

"Our requirements are determined by the degree for which the candidate offers himself," says a college for men. "We have no requirements based on what a student may later teach."

"A teacher who is overprepared in these subjects makes just as big a failure as one unprepared," says another. "In this time of reaction from the war, we are in danger of overstressing these subjects. Of all things in our school system today, we need sanity."

One college requires "a well-balanced course." Another thinks a "major covering the usual history in high schools is sufficient."

"Our experience is that students who take the courses offered by us for the usual degrees make good teachers of the subjects they have pursued."

"Colleges should not require. They should merely recommend. We would suggest two years of history and one of government."

Another example of the prevailing practice may be obtained by examining the training in subject matter of teachers now in the school system. A survey was recently made of the social studies in the high schools of one of the largest cities in the country. It is reasonable to suppose that the teachers in a large city system have more and better training than the average teacher. Therefore the facts which follow do not present a fair picture of the general situation; an inference from them alone would be too optimistic. The schools of the particular city examined give an exceptional attention to the social studies other than history; and it is, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the teachers there would have a larger proportion of training in economics and government than in history. Yet in this city system the high-school teachers who administer the social studies report only an average of one course in government in their preparation, and many of the courses reported were in summer school or extension work. In one large school, out of 9 teachers reporting, only 3 had included in their preparation any work in government. The returns show a slightly higher percentage of preparation in economics. The 72 teachers reporting show an average of one and a half courses in this subject, including extension and summer work taken after they began to teach. But 13 of them report no preparation in either economics or industrial history. All of the teachers, with a few scattering exceptions, report what seems to be a sufficient preparation in history viewed quantitatively.

This condition was unusually favorable. Everyone who has looked into the teaching of history as a separate social study knows that a common practice is to assign history classes to persons who are innocent of any pretense of preparation in either method or subject matter. The point that needs stressing here,

however, is the fact that among those who have some respect for preparation and training there is a tendency to consider the study of history a sufficient preparation for the social studies as a group.

For example, in one of the largest State universities, where a really serious effort has been made to give prospective teachers adequate preparation, the secretary of the department of history was asked to collect some information about the courses taken in the college by those who had definitely signified their intention to teach the social studies, particularly history and civics. The record cards of 24 candidates were examined. Many of these candidates had already done much more work than is represented by the 120 units required for the bachelor's degree. Of these 24 candidates, 6 had studied no economics, government, or sociology; 8 had studied no government, although they were to teach civics; 13 no economics. All of these candidates had completed more than 30 units of history, while 21 had done less than 10 units of economics. Two prospective teachers of history even went so far in their last two years in college as to confine their work to 63 units of history and 1 of literature.

The point of view of the more conservative of the history professors who are making a real effort to secure adequate preparation of the teacher of history in the secondary school is indicated by the following reply made by the head of the history department of one of the great State universities, when asked for his opinion as to whether all students who are planning to teach the social studies in the schools should be prepared in economics and government.

"Yes; I think it would be desirable. But unless the candidate is going to do more than the ordinary four years of work in his preparation, he will not have time to prepare in economics and government. You see, he may have to teach ancient, medieval, modern, English, and American history. Here are five fields in which he must be prepared. If he does this well, he has no time to study economics and government and to meet the general needs of his curriculum requirements."

To the author this position seems wholly untenable. Obviously, few if any students are able or willing to spend more than four years at college in preparation for high-school work. Moreover, as has been pointed out clearly, the usual teacher of history is compelled to teach the other social studies in the high-school curriculum. This curriculum to an increasing extent is being modeled after the recommendations of the National Education Association committee and subsequent committees in substantial agreement with it. The obvious conclusion from this situation is, therefore, that prospective teachers of the social studies in high schools should have a thorough and balanced preparation for all of the courses which they will be called on to teach; and, furthermore, that the departments of history, political science, and economics in the colleges and universities should unite on a comprehensive and balanced program of studies to be required of all students who intend to teach the social studies in the high schools.

IV. TRAINING IN METHODS OF TEACHING

One of the outstanding difficulties in the way of preparing effective teachers of the social studies, as well as of other subjects, is the lack of co-operation between those who prepare them in subject matter and those who train them in methods. Professors of economics, government, and history do not understand, and therefore they minimize, the efforts of the members of the department of education. Those who are developing the science and art of education, in turn, treat with too little respect the scholars who are developing bodies of knowledge in the academic fields. There are, of course, many conspicuous exceptions to both of these generalizations; and the generalizations are becoming less true because the number of exceptions is increasing. But in the dozen leading universities recently visited by an observer the statement was frankly made that this lack of co-operation exists and that it weakens the efforts of each institution.

A great many university professors claim, and actually believe, that if a prospective teacher learns a subject and then goes into the high school and tries diligently to imitate the teaching under which he has studied, he will be successful. The present section of this paper is addressed to such professors and to those school administrators who still undervalue training in the art of teaching.

It is often claimed that each teacher must develop his own methods and apply them. This is in the long run true. It is also true that every football player who becomes really effective must in the end develop his own method of play; but the team does not want to sacrifice a dozen or more important games in order that the player may develop his own play wholly without guidance.

So with the science and art of teaching. Practice games are played in the high school maintained by the university. Before these games take place, the professors of education lecture to the prospective players on the best methods of getting the facts across the goal line, of breaking the formation of indifference in the mind of the child, of tackling his attention and holding it. He tells the prospective teacher how other great teachers have worked, outlining their methods. Then he sends the neophyte into a class to teach, and with him he sends an older teacher as a coach to watch, correct, guide and advise. In this way the teacher is saved from the sin of experimenting on the lives of young children, and disgusting them with what is called education. It seems almost axiomatic that young men and women should not be turned into classes to teach without such training; yet it happens in hundreds of cases every year. The prospective teacher of the social studies is probably more in need of training than the teacher of any other subject.

The work of the mathematics teacher may be tested somewhat objectively through the solution of original problems. If the pupil is fairly at home in the solution of original problems, the teacher probably has a right to feel that he has achieved some success. Even outsiders, such as school examiners and surveyors, may test the work of a teacher of mathematics through

objective tests of his pupils. There may be higher faculties which the mathematics teacher must look to in the training he gives, but even these faculties seem to be mental, and may be tested by measurements now being worked out.

The teacher of English composition and speech may have the certainty that he is accomplishing something; and those who test his work may grade it through objective measurements. The same seems to be true of the sciences. Whether it is equally true of literature may be doubted, and the literature teacher may need as ample training as the social studies teacher if he is to avoid wooden and profitless drill.

If history were the only social study, it may be that objective tests could be supplied for it. The reader is here referred to Chapter XVI of Prof. Henry Johnson's "Teaching of History." One who reads this chapter and who is also familiar with the average examination of the College Entrance Examination Board or the Board of Regents of a State like New York will see at once how wide apart are the best theory and the common practice. The history teacher for even the commonly accepted history course needs a good deal of training in the methods and purposes of teaching, if he is to avoid the errors which are perpetuated by all of our leading examining authorities.

But the social studies do not consist of the commonly accepted history. While their purpose includes the purpose of scientific history teaching, which looks to an appreciation of the value of evidence and the sense of evolution, it includes much more than these things. One hesitates to say that the social studies are addressed ultimately to the will and the motive forces, for the statement is so easily misunderstood by persons who have given little attention to this field of endeavor. The purpose of the group of courses which are organized under the title "the social studies" is to make a boy or girl into a man or woman who understands his position, his duties, and his opportunities in a society which is becoming more and more democratic.

A leading economist, Prof. L. C. Marshall, chairman of the committee on economics in the schools of the American Economic Association, was recently quoted as making the following statement:

"The organization of social studies in the public schools should be in terms of the purpose of introducing those studies. Their purpose is to give to our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act which are essential to effective participation in our society."

The result of teaching for such purposes can not be tested with much success. Certainty of accomplishment can be had only through the training of teachers who will make a real effort at accomplishment and who may be expected, by reason of their training, to accomplish what they are seeking. It

does not seem necessary to go into a detailed exposition of this proposed training. It may be sufficient to refer to the appendix at the end of this paper, which deals with the present and proposed practice in the University of California.

The questionnaire which the Bureau of Education sent to the higher institutions in which teachers are trained for the secondary schools requested information bearing on the training of prospective teachers in the methods of their art. The question was asked, "What courses in methods of teaching history, government, civics, or citizenship, and elementary economics in secondary schools are offered in your institution?" The summary of replies which follows is based on the same selected set of 100 answers as was used for the summary of the conditions bearing on training in subject matter.

Thirteen institutions replied that training in method is given incidentally in the courses in general education.

Twenty-three give a course in the department of history on the teaching of history. In this connection the fact should be kept in mind that the courses here referred to are given by a professor of history trained in traditional and more or less specialized history teaching, and that but little if any attention is given in it to the other social studies.

Five reply that methods are taught by example in the regular history classes.

Twenty reply that no training in methods is offered.

Twelve leave the question blank. These, with the 20 which reply to the question by saying that no courses are offered, "make a total of about one-third of the selected institutions which offer no training in methods whatever.

Among the scattering statements to be found among the 100 replies, one learns that in three of the institutions the department of education gives a course in methods of teaching history; in three such a course is offered in the summer session; and in three plans are on foot to expand the efforts to train teachers. In each case the course mentioned is in the teaching of history alone. One institution speaks of a course in the methods of teaching the social studies; one a course in teaching civics; and one says that a course in methods is occasionally offered. One says there is no demand for such a course.

Another question was, "In what department are the courses in methods taught?" Twenty-three institutions say in the department of history; five in the department of history and political science; twenty-five in the department of education; two say that there is a teachers' course in each department; sixty leave the question blank; and twenty say that there is no such course. The figures on the replies to this question do not exactly correspond with those on the replies to the previous one.

Another question was, "What practice teaching in history, government, civics, or citizenship, and elementary economics is required of students who expect to teach history and the social sciences in secondary schools?" Thirty-one of the selected institutions reply that practice teaching is required. It is generally

done under the direction of the department of education, and in some of the stronger State universities it is done in a high school maintained for the purpose by the university. In these institutions the time is likely to be about four or five hours a week for a half year. Brown University has an arrangement for its students to practice in the public high schools of Providence.

The remaining question on methods was, "Is practice teaching done under supervision? If so, under whose supervision?"

Thirty-three left this question blank. Twenty-eight say it is done under the supervision of the department of education, and in some cases add "with the aid of the principal of the high school." In five the practice is supervised by the department of history, and in four by the departments of history and education working jointly. In five the head of the department of history in the high school gives the supervision. The remainder are indefinite.

It should be kept in mind that in nearly every case both the course in methods and the practice teaching are in history alone. Civics must take care of itself, and economics is ignored. There is scarcely an effort to train the prospective teachers in handling the social studies as a group or a unit in the field of secondary education. In at least two large State universities the practice teaching in history and the methods course which precedes the practice is under the direction of history teachers who have no training in either government or economics and who state frankly that they know little or nothing about either field of study. Therefore even in the larger cities where teachers of considerable training in the subject matter of history are employed it is the exceptional teacher who has had instruction in methods and practice teaching in any of the social studies.

One school in a large city system shows nine teachers of the social studies, with only two trained in methods. In the same city another school reports ten teachers, not one of whom has had any training whatever in methods.

V. THE BLANKET CERTIFICATE.

A questionnaire was also sent to representative educators in various parts of the country containing the following statements and questions:

"In most of our States it is now customary to issue to those who wish to teach in the secondary schools a *blanket certificate*. Under such certificates teachers are assigned to the teaching of any subject at the discretion of the principal. Consequently, it often happens that the social studies are assigned to teachers but slightly prepared to teach them; and in far more cases the teaching of civics, for example, is assigned to teachers who have been trained only in history. It is now proposed in many quarters that two things be done: First, that those who teach or prepare to teach any of the social studies be trained in a group of subjects; and, second, that the school administration issue certificates of preparation to teach groups of subjects rather than to teach at large.

"Are blanket certificates issued in your State?

"Does this practice result in the assignment of classes to teachers who are not trained in the subjects they are required to teach?"

"Is there a movement in your State toward the certification of teachers in subjects or groups of subjects? How far has it progressed? Do you think it a wise movement? What are the obstacles in its way?"

"What is your opinion of the desirability of such a movement?"

"It is manifest that specific certification would reduce the supply of teachers temporarily, but the only means of securing proper salaries for teachers is to show the public that trained and efficient teachers can not be had without a living wage. If the standards of preparation are not made sufficient, we shall continue to get teachers insufficient in quality, and the public will become less and less satisfied with the schools. The salary question has to be fought out, and it might as well be fought out on a basis of sufficient training as not. A wisely organized program of training and certification will greatly aid in showing the leaders of public opinion the need of paying enough money to get real teachers."

The following statements are representative of the replies received to this inquiry. It is well within the limits of truth to say that the blanket certificate is condemned by the great majority of thoughtful students of education in the country.

Dean H. D. Sheldon, of the school of education of the University of Oregon, writes:

"The real solution, in my opinion, would be for the States to grant certificates only in the subjects which the candidates are qualified to teach, instead of general blanket certificates, as is now the practice. . . . The argument against this is: Occasionally a certain man or woman is highly desirable on the staff of the school, and yet there may be no vacancy which a certificate of the sort I have in mind would enable him or her to fill. That is, it is felt that in some cases personality is more important than grasp of subject matter. Personally, I consider this position mistaken, and I believe that we shall never have a thoroughly satisfactory state of affairs until we do have definite certification by subject matter."

Dean Sheldon would, of course, associate with certification in subject matter certification in methods as well.

Assistant Superintendent Allen, of Kansas, writes:

"We do grant mostly blanket certificates, which practice often results in the assignment of teachers to subjects in which they are not prepared. There is only a slight movement here to correct this practice. The chief obstacle to the reform is the scarcity of teachers, even with the blanket certificate. The salaries must be materially increased, and the change must be made gradually."

The Kentucky State supervisor of high schools writes:

"We are hoping to get away from the blanket certificate system in some measure. The blanket certificate results in the assignment of classes to teachers who are not trained in the subject which they are required to teach. The movement for certification of teachers in subjects has not progressed very far."

Commissioner A. B. Meredith, of Connecticut, writes:

"Blanket certificates are issued in this State, and they result in the assignment of classes to teachers who are not trained in the subjects they are required to teach. There is a movement here to correct this state of affairs."

Arthur J. Jones, professor of secondary education in the University of Pennsylvania, believes the movement to do away with blanket certificates is a wise one, but thinks the lack of teachers is the main obstacle in the way.

H. M. Ivy, State supervisor of secondary schools in Mississippi, says:

"Blanket certificates are issued in this State. This practice results in the assignment of classes to teachers who are not trained in the subjects they are required to teach. There is a movement in this State toward a certification of teachers by groups of subjects. A bill was introduced in the legislature of 1920 to accomplish this, but it was lost in the Senate by failure to act. It is a wise movement, and I hope we shall be able to secure the necessary legislation in 1922."

Assistant Superintendent Eaton, of Utah, says that blanket certificates are issued in that State, but that superintendents and principals do not assign teachers to work for which they are not specially qualified. On the other hand, Dean Bennion, of the school education in the University of Utah, writes:

"Concerning blanket certificates, I have found that the issuance of these certificates often results in assigning high school teachers to work for which they are poorly qualified. Thus far the State board has made no move toward correcting this difficulty, although I am hopeful that they will do something about it in the near future."

City Superintendent Corson, of Newark, N. J., says that blanket certificates are not generally issued in New Jersey, but that the issuing of them results temporarily in the assignment of teachers to subjects in which they are not prepared. And he tells us that training is not the only element required for successful teaching.

J. A. Stoddard, professor of secondary education in the University of South Carolina, states that the blanket certificate, with its unfortunate consequences, has been used in South Carolina; that there is an organized movement to eliminate it; and that the movement seems to him a wise one. The scarcity of teachers is the difficulty.

L. H. King, professor of education in the University of Alabama, writes that the issuing of blanket certificates there frequently results in classes being handled without training. He thinks the movement to eliminate them should be pressed, but nothing is being done in Alabama because of the scarcity of teachers.

Professor Earl Hudelson, of the department of education in the University of West Virginia, writes forcefully to about the same effect as does Professor King.

C. L. Robertson, State high school inspector in North Dakota, says:

"Blanket certificates are issued in this State permitting college graduates who have a minimum of 16 semester hours of professional training to teach any high school subject . . . Teachers in the small high schools have to be "utility men." The fact that we have so many small high schools in the State may account for the fact that no definite steps have been taken toward the certification of teachers in subjects or groups of subjects."

City Superintendent R. E. Rawlins, Pierre, S. Dak., answers "yes" to the first two questions, and adds that the State department uses its influence to have school officials guard this weak point. He thinks that a movement to eliminate the blanket certificate a desirable one, but that it will take time and general education to make it effective. Nothing has been done there thus far.

R. H. Jordan, of the department of education in Dartmouth College, is doubtful about the desirability of doing away with the blanket certificate, because he fears that it might result, in the very small high schools, in the social studies being neglected, since teachers would not be prepared for them.

The office of the commissioner of education in Rhode Island calls attention to the greatly increased expense which might result from placing the certification of teachers on a new basis.

State Superintendent T. E. Johnson, of Michigan, declares:

"Our State issues a blanket certificate, and I favor this, because I am not desirous of having the certification situation mixed up more than is absolutely essential. Superintendents and high school principals are thoroughly alive to the necessity of having properly trained teachers for their work, and I think our present plan is working out in an entirely satisfactory manner. Our salary schedule is, on the whole, probably better than any other State in the Union, and we do not find much to worry about in getting properly trained teachers for our secondary schools."

L. V. Koos, professor of secondary education, University of Minnesota, says:

"I regard your contentions concerning certification of high school teachers as valid. The campaign should be made for more extended preparation in all teaching subjects and not for the social studies only. . . . What we need is a nation-wide study of this whole problem of extent of preparation, and of combinations of subjects in which teachers are to be prepared."

He adds:

"I have, in combination with Dr. Clifford Woody, of the University of Washington, intimated as much in the conclusions of an investigation made by us of the training of high school teachers in the State of Washington."

George R. Twiss, State high school inspector and professor of education in the Ohio State University, answers "yes" to both of the first questions, and adds that there is no definitely organized movement for the correction of the unfortunate condition. The reasons are, he thinks, inertia and indisposition to tamper

with the certificate laws and the school code in general. The State department of public instruction is more concerned at present in holding the somewhat advanced ground already gained than with making immediate advances which may complicate the situation and endanger the whole line. "I think it highly desirable that this principle be vigorously argued and urged." He thinks the efforts of the North Central Association in this direction are doing a great deal of good.

Professor Paul C. Phillips, of the University of Montana, says:

"We use the system of giving blanket certificates in this State. It is generally agreed among the teachers and examining office that the system is bad, but it seems to be a very difficult matter to change the law. The practice, as I have already stated, frequently results in giving classes to teachers for which they are unprepared. I have talked to the State superintendent about this evil. She agrees that it is a serious matter and expressed to me the hope that it could be changed at the next session of the legislature, which meets in January."

Professor W. C. Cook, of the department of education in the University of South Dakota, answers "yes" to both of the first questions, but says he knows of no movement to correct the evil. He states:

"I favor such a movement. Schools employing only specifically certified teachers should be separately accredited or given some special recognition."

Professor Alexander Inglis, of Harvard University, replies: "There is no question that certification should be by subjects." He thinks the main obstacle in the way is the fear on the part of some religious denominations of centralized control.

The following incident in one of the leading States of the middle West merely illustrates a common practice. A young woman prepared herself thoroughly to teach English. She then applied to the principal of a high school for a position. The principal knew, or could easily have discovered, that she was prepared especially for English teaching. She was appointed; found on reaching the school that there were already abundant teachers for all the English work; and was assigned to the teaching of physiography and physiology, neither of which subjects she had studied since she left high school, more than four years previously. It would be unnecessary to illustrate the well-known practice of assigning civics and history to teachers prepared in mathematics, Latin, science, or any other subject. Any observer in any city can give illustrations of it off-hand. Illustrations can be given of persons trained to teach history and civics and assigned, for example, to commercial arithmetic, while teachers untrained in the social studies are assigned to history and civics in the same school.

University authorities use such incidents as these to excuse their failure to urge prospective teachers to prepare themselves thoroughly in groups of subjects; and their arguments are difficult to answer.

VI. CONCLUSIONS.

The responsibility for effective teaching of the social studies and for training in citizenship is divided between the universities and the school administrators.

On the universities rests the responsibility for leadership in giving currency to right thinking, and on the school administrators rests the duty to see that persons are not employed to teach subjects for which they are not prepared.

In the universities useful work is seriously hampered by the failure of co-operation, first among the academic departments, and, second, between the academic departments as a group and the schools of education.

Since high school teachers in the field of the social studies have so long been catalogued as history teachers, the departments of history are conspicuously responsible for not humanizing their work and admitting the departments of economics, government, and sociology into co-operation with them in the preparation of teachers.

The tendency is for the university professors of history and government to push narrow specialization down into the secondary schools, making of prospective teachers of the social studies imitations of university professors—research workers—in history and government. Therefore the young teacher is likely to try to reproduce in the high school the type of teaching under which he has studied in the university.

It is of first importance for the university departments of economics, government, history, and sociology to unite, under the guidance of the experts in education, in the formulation of a group course of training in these fields in order that it may be possible for the prospective teacher to cover a reasonable amount of the various elementary or introductory courses in subject matter.

The universities should *require*, not *recommend*, that those who are to be indorsed as teachers of the social studies shall have completed this group training before they receive an indorsement. This is done in the preparation of persons for other professions, and there is no reason why the teaching profession should not have as respectable treatment.

It is necessary for some schools of education to reduce the amount of their requirement of educational theory in order that it may be brought into due relation to the amount of time given to training in subject matter. About 10 or 12 per cent of the requirements for the bachelor's degree seems to be a sufficient requirement in the theory and practice of teaching.

This requirement of 10 or 12 per cent, under the immediate direction of the department of education, should be insisted upon in every case before the university gives the prospective teacher its indorsement. If the candidate postpones his decision to teach, it is his own fault, and he should be required to complete his preparation before he is recommended as a teacher.

School administrators should cease to grant meaningless blanket certificates; and they should cease to assign classes to persons who can not show that they are prepared for the work assigned to them. It is

better for pupils to take only such work as teachers are prepared to teach.

To make this possible, school administrators should group the subjects in the secondary schools with proper respect for their co-ordination in order that they may not be tempted to assign teachers outside of their certificated preparation. If the subjects of the school are grouped into about six departments, and if universities train teachers with these groupings in view, it will not be necessary for teachers training in mathematics and science to be assigned left-over groups in history or the other social studies about which they are conscious of knowing nothing.

Decent salaries must, of course, be offered if persons are to be persuaded to prepare themselves for the teaching profession. But the best way of securing such salaries is to lay down definite specifications for those who are to be employed. The law of supply and demand will then tend to place salaries where they should be. So long as teachers are assigned to work in which they are not properly prepared, it is only reasonable to suppose that school administrators will be hampered in their plea that higher salaries must be paid in order to fill positions properly.

APPENDIX

A HOPEFUL EXAMPLE OF TEACHER TRAINING

Concreteness may probably be best given to this discussion of the training of teachers through a description of the practice and program at one of the leading institutions of higher learning. The conditions for the proper training of teachers in the State of California are excellent. The State University of California is conscious of its responsibilities in this direction and is moving along wise lines of progress. It is the most influential institution of higher learning in the State, with the possible exception of Leland Stanford University. The State department of education is endowed with large powers and is headed by a group of officials who are able, aggressive, energetic, and inspired with high ideals of service. The teachers in the State are paid such salaries as will draw into the school system men and women of real ability, and will encourage them to prepare themselves thoroughly for their profession. The present law is already fairly well matured to insure efficiency, and the people of the State, as well as the personnel of the school system in general, seem really to believe in public education.

The following description of teacher training in that State is in general a description of the present practice, though some items are now only in the initial stage, and in one or two cases the proposals are only definitely made, not yet authorized. Furthermore, there are provisions for some exceptions to the law, such as those in favor of experienced teachers from other States who apply for certificates.

The State law requires that candidates for the teacher's certificate in secondary education shall present (1) the bachelor's degree from a standard college requiring four years of high school and four years of college work; (2) a year of graduate study in one of about twenty-five approved graduate schools, which number includes only universities of recognized stand-

ing; (3) fifteen units of work in courses listed in the department of education, consisting in general of the following: (a) A unit in school and classroom management, (b) four units in the actual practice of teaching, (c) three units in a teacher's course in the organization of the subject matter of the department in which the candidate expects to teach, (d) two units of work in the purpose and attainable goals of secondary education, (e) five units selected somewhat freely in the field of educational theory, function, organization, method, and administration.

The practice in the University of California requires the candidate to do his practice teaching in an excellent high school maintained by the university and the city of Oakland under the direction and supervision of the department of education in the university. In the field of the social studies this practice teaching is done under the direction of a trained teacher of the social studies who gives a course in the university in the methods of teaching the social studies.

The ideal toward which the school of education in the University of California is moving is that the department of education shall be the nucleus of the school and shall supply professional scholarship and stimulus in the science of education. Around this nucleus is grouped in the school of education a body of scholars representing the various fields of art and science, members of the various departments of the university, but interested primarily or extensively in the propagation of these arts or sciences through teaching in the schools. In the field of the social studies, the plan is for one member of one of the departments of economics, government, or history, to offer a course for teachers in the subject matter of the social studies through which the prospective teacher may be introduced to the general outlines, goals and philosophy of the work. Within the department of education is a teacher's course in the method of handling this material in the school. The former is in one sense a philosophical course, the latter, a course in technique.

The plan at the University of California is to present the subject matter of the social studies to the prospective teacher through co-operation among the departments of economics, government, and history, requiring such other courses as these departments and the school of education deem advisable in view of the current equipment of the university. The basic principle is that, when a man or woman enters the school of education, it is assumed that he has offered himself for training in a profession, just as the prospective engineer or lawyer would, and that it is the duty of the university to give all the guidance and stimulus that it is able to give.

The general plan for subject matter courses outlined at the University of California, and to be followed in so far as the dean of the school of education finds it possible in the light of the present equipment of the several departments, is as follows:

Twelve units of introductory work, prerequisite to advanced work in the field, consisting of six units of economics and six of either history or political science.

Eighteen units of upper division or senior college work, six in history, six in economics, and six in political science, and six additional units selected by the candidate from one of the foregoing subjects.

It is assumed that the candidate will take additional work in the social studies beyond this minimum, and that his interest in this profession will dispose him to include in his work for the bachelor's degree some study of group psychology, ethics, anthropology, or social institutions. It is also assumed that the school of education will direct that the candidate include in the thirty-six units of the minimum at least a course in the history of the United States and one in general history, and one in comparative government. It is further assumed that he will pursue a graduate course based on the principles which underlie the organization of a proper course for teachers. This means that some professor in one of the social studies shall introduce him to the methods and aims of the study of man in society, to grasp the meaning of history, political science, and of economics as useful fields of thought and research.

Given such control of subject matter as the foregoing preparation makes reasonably certain, let attention be turned to the art of teaching. The candidate has given a tithe of his time to the theory and practice of teaching (a tithe, because five years of study is represented by about 150 units, of which fifteen units are under the immediate direction of the department of education.) As has been stated, two of these units represent a course in the methods of handling the social studies in the secondary school. Four of them represent actual practice in teaching.

The candidate who offers himself for practice teaching is already more or less familiar with the subject he is to teach. He is required to direct the work of a high-school class for ninety hours in the university high school, under supervision and direction. If he does not seem to progress, he is taken out of the work and told that the profession of teaching is not his calling. The director of practice teaching introduces the candidate through several hours of demonstration teaching in the class which the candidate is to handle, and then turns the pupils over to him. But since the school is conducted at least as much in the interest of the pupils as of the candidate, the teaching of the latter is a matter of constant care on the part of the director of practice teaching.

The candidates in the social studies meet singly or in groups with the director of practice teaching at regular hours each week for conference, stimulation, encouragement, and correction. At the end of the period of practice teaching, each candidate presents a paper on the objects to be attained through the teaching of the social studies in the secondary schools, and the methods and devices to be used. The candidate is further expected to show some ability to co-operate in the democratic organization of the school, and to lead the pupils in the development of character without allowing the hand of direction to rest in too paternalistic a way on the progress of pupil participation.

The license to teach in secondary schools in the

State of California is granted under the authority of the State department of education only on the recommendation of certain educational institutions which are definitely admitted to this privilege because of their equipment and standing. The recommendation of weaker colleges is not accepted and can not be under the law. The recommendation must be forwarded to the State authorities by the school of education of the institution in which the candidate has met the requirements, not by the general administration of the university; and it is within the power of the school of education to influence, in a large degree, the selection of courses pursued by the candidate as he is taking his preparation.

The blanket certificate to teach at large without specific recommendation is not approved in California. Arrangements are under way to organize the high school courses of study in groups, such as modern

languages, mathematics, science, and so on. This will make it possible for the principal to select teachers for groups of subjects. It makes it possible for a prospective teacher to prepare himself in two groups, such as English and the social studies, during his five years in such an institution as the University of California.

A number of other institutions of higher learning are evolving their work in lines essentially parallel to those of California, but with greater difficulty and with less present hope of rapid progress. They are delayed in their evolution either by the failure of State departments to co-operate with them, or by the failure of academic departments of study to understand the problem of teacher training, or by departments of education which demand an unreasonable proportion of the student's time, or by other impediments well known to students of educational development.

The Need for Organization and for a Common Terminology in the Social Studies

BY SYLVESTER B. BUTLER, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, TERRYVILLE, CONN.

In the chapter entitled "The Study of Social Groups" in Mr. Henry Johnson's invaluable "Teaching of History," we read that "for the organization of history as a whole, including the political as well as the non-political factors in civilization, some comprehensive system of classifying facts is indispensable." This may seem too obvious to be stated, but do we recognize this "indispensable" element in our work to any marked degree, we teachers of history? Is our treatment of the subject matter of history and the other social studies such that at the end of any course the student may have a well-rounded organized idea of the subject as a whole, as he may from his study of the physical and natural sciences, for example?

To ask these questions is to answer them. The study of human society in our secondary schools is still deficient here. Teachers of the social studies, including that of history, are by no means universally imbued with the conception of their main task as that of guiding their students to an understanding of the human world about them. If they were, surely they would feel the need of a "comprehensive system of classifying facts," without which the facts, stuffed and jumbled in the mind, contribute little to real understanding. This need has been long met and long unquestioned in the studies which aim to give an understanding of the natural world.

It may be objected that history, at least, cannot lend itself to such treatment, because of the chronological element. The present writer gladly agrees that this element cannot be ignored, and that much of the value in history study is lost by any radical departure from the chronological approach. But is there anything to prevent us from having a framework on which to place our facts as we gather them?

And will not these historical facts be made much more readily available for the explanation of present-day problems in societal life in its different phases, if we make these different phases the basis for a classification of the facts studied throughout a course in history? The topical method, which many teachers of history have come to employ in recent years, does, it is true, meet the suggested need to a certain extent. The topics usually selected give excellent approaches to an understanding of specific institutions, activities, and problems in present-day society. But we need a brief, comprehensive classification of social facts and phenomena, both historical and current, which may be applied to all our work in the social studies, of which history, be it said, is rightly but one branch. The usual history topics will presently be criticized as not meeting this need.

And those of us who do try to organize the subject-matter of history and the other social studies, do we speak a common language? In the classifications which we use, do we base our divisions on clearly defined separate phases of life in society? And do we employ a terminology definitely related to words of approved usage in current discussion of the institutions, activities, and problems of man's life in society, —discussion which we should wish to equip our students to follow and understand?

Investigation would soon show that we speak many dialects. Textbooks, with which efforts toward uniformity should begin, because of their central place in our scheme of things, at present only aggravate the situation. Take the word "social." There are few, if any, words used more promiscuously. In an excellent new high school textbook on United States history, there is a chapter headed "Social and Political Progress" (in the colonial period), which for the

"social" aspect of progress discusses education, religion, and the press—nothing else. "A Political and Social History" is part of the title of a first rate college text, used frequently as a reference work in secondary schools, in which, judging from its contents, the term "social" covers everything non-political. In other works, chapters on "social development" have seemed to be a catch-all for facts otherwise unplaced. As another example, the word "industrial" is applied with similar looseness—to cover everything pertaining to the production and distribution of wealth, to cover merely productive enterprise, or the latter with the exclusion of agriculture, or with the exclusion of all extractive enterprises.

As textbooks are almost exclusively the basis of instruction in the social studies in our high schools, it is but natural that the terms employed by teachers and students will show a similar, if not a greater, discrepancy and indefiniteness. The writer's observation bears out this statement. In addition to the words used in illustrating the point of the preceding paragraph, certain others may be mentioned as having been shown through this observation to demand less rough usage than they customarily receive: "commercial," "financial," "factors," "agencies," "elements," "means," "institutions," "aspects," "phases," are all among them. Care and the use of a good dictionary will help considerably.

Confusion of a different sort is evident when we compare textbooks and manuals in history with those in civics, social problems, and economic life. Where, for instance, in the treatment of the other social studies anywhere, can one find duplicated the organization of subject-matter according to the eleven so-called "elements of welfare," suggested in Bulletin 23, 1915, of the United States Bureau of Education—"The Teaching of Community Civics"—and followed in several recent texts on this subject? There is little or no common organization in our present handling of the social studies, even within single school-systems. But is it not self-evident that if the study of society is to receive the public recognition which we ardently desire it to have as an essential and distinct branch of work in our secondary schools, the courses which contribute to the study must be considered as a unit, with a single purpose and a single organization for the subject-matter of each, and that we who are sponsors for them must talk alike?

Coming to the question of the actual basis of division and the actual selection of titles for our divisions, let us view some recent efforts. Take Bulletin 23, 1915, which has been mentioned. This pamphlet is a veritable mine of helpful suggestion, and the writer acknowledges a considerable debt to it for help it has given in the work of his school. But the eleven "elements of welfare" chosen as the basis for the suggested organization of the work in community civics do seem rather arbitrarily selected: even the choice of the term "elements of welfare" seems of doubtful propriety when applied to such a topic as "Migration." Moreover, they leave several gaps in the study, if it is to be a comprehensive, even though elementary, view of community life in its

various aspects, as it would seem that it should be; for instance, home life and organization, religion, war, and peace, all of them impossible to ignore as aspects of life in society, are not naturally covered by any of the eleven topics. The maintenance of "Civic Beauty" and that of "Communication" seem hardly worthy of places as major activities of community life, to mention the extreme cases of a general fault among the topics. The eleven-fold division under discussion, it is submitted, is not a naturally constructed framework for knowledge of the aspects of one's societal environment. The topics may be, however, with perhaps a few changes in wording, excellent subdivisions of a broader grouping. They may be, they are in fact, important planks in the modern social edifice, but the individual's mental picture of the edifice is likely to become warped and blurred if they are mistakenly supposed to be the main posts and beams.

The usual divisions of the field made for the topical study of history are open to similar objections as a possible basis for the organization of history as one of the social studies. They are at once too numerous and not comprehensive enough: too many to include in the single mental picture which should be obtained of the field, and seldom all-inclusive, taken together, of every aspect of societal life. Many topics that are closely related in actuality have here no common bond to insure the observance of the relation. "The Growth of American Industry" and "The Rise of Organized Labor," for example, may be taken up without any thought of their relations, so far as the organization of the course determines the approach of teacher and student to it, when they are not considered as two phases of American economic development.

Nor are the "Problems of Modern Democracy" which are coming to be studied and discussed in the twelfth year often grouped in broad divisions which will preserve the close relation among the problems which belong under each, and serve as a unifying device for the grasping and retention of the essentials of the whole year's study.

What, then, is a proper grouping? The writer's ideas of the answer to this question have been indicated by the drift of his criticisms of the present state of things. The grouping should be based on clearly defined separate phases of life in society, and should cover every kind of social contact. The divisions should be broad and few in number.

The following basis of classification for the facts gleaned in the social studies is suggested as the natural one, meeting all the requirements which have been set forth:

1—Social, pertaining to the more intimate societal environment and to unspecialized group activities, including general living conditions and modes of life, movements of peoples, home life and organization, customs, habits, classes in society and their relation to each other, and treatment of special groups in society, such as paupers, defectives, and criminals.

2—Economic, pertaining to the production, distribution, and use of wealth.

3—Cultural, pertaining to the growth and extent of knowledge and intelligence, to the advancement of science and invention, to language and literature, and to education.

4—Religious, pertaining to ideas and practices connected with beliefs in supernatural beings.

5—Political, pertaining to government.

6—Military (if not considered with "Political"), pertaining to wars and warlike activities, and to fighting weapons and methods.

These six terms designate as many clearly defined phases of life in society, as it exists and has existed; though their manifold interrelations cannot and should not be ignored. The writer can think of no social phenomena, no human contacts, which cannot be placed under one of these divisions. And, while meaning no presumption, he feels justified in claiming for the terms selected the authority of approved usage. Moreover, they are not too numerous for inclusion in a single mental picture, and thus the grouping stands the test of effectiveness as an organizing and retaining device.

Right here some might find fault with this article because it seemed to be inconsistent with its own criticisms in its double use of the over-worked word "social"; for the word has herein been used as pertaining to all of man's life in association with his fellows in such terms as "social studies," and has also been used in the suggested classification in the more limited application to intimate environment and unspecialized activity. But the word is constantly used by authorities in this double sense. The term "social studies" is generally accepted and by contrast "social conditions" is habitually used as distinct from the specialized "economic conditions," "political conditions," "religion," and "culture." Because the term is generally accepted in this double sense, it is used here. A "bill" may be an appendage of a bird, or an evidence of a purchase not paid for, a "car" may be an automobile or a railroad carriage; the proper meanings can be judged from their relation to other words in the sentences in which they are used. So must one decide between the two uses of the word "social" from the context. But, in the opinion of the writer, its multiple other uses should be avoided, even though one or two of them have some standing. The selection of the term "economic" as the broad term for its field should also receive special mention, since the terms "industrial" and "commercial," properly of narrower implication, are often used to designate the whole field of economic life.

How are we going to make our classification function in the minds of our students? At the beginning of each course in the social studies from the seventh grade on, whether it covers all or only a part of the phases of societal life, we may give some idea of its place in the study of society. We may repeat the explanation of our classification each year in words which our students can understand. We may constantly return to it throughout the year, by seeing how well the students can "pigeon-hole" this fact and that fact in our organizational scheme. In the widely-given ninth grade "Community Civics" and in the

twelfth grade courses variously known as "Problems of Democracy," "Social, Economic, and Political Principles and Problems," etc., we can make the order of our classification the order of the year's work, taking up institutions, activities, and problems in more restricted fields under each, such as "Immigration" and "The Family" under "Social Life," and "The Organization of Industry" and "Taxation" under "Economic Life." In the history courses, if we travel along in the main chronologically, as the writer believes we should, we can build a topical structure on our six-fold foundation as we go. A means for doing this would be to take time during each lesson to find where on our proposed structure the general topic of the lesson or any of its parts belonged (sometimes the parts will belong in more than one place), and to make different students responsible for building certain portions of the structure, in other words, keeping up topical outlines, as we go along, of various special subjects grouped under the six main divisions—such as "Immigration," again, under "Social History," "Taxation" under "Economic History," and "Party Organization and Machinery" under "Political History." At the close of terms and of the year these topical outlines may be made the basis of reviews. It is important that the relation between the separate subjects and the main divisions be kept evident, and that the selection of subjects under the six main divisions be as nearly as possible the same in each course in the social studies. We should also keep before students the idea that in each division and subdivision of the study they are observing three main things: institutions, activities and problems; some might wish to add "conditions" as a fourth. Lastly, we may classify facts and discussions and criticize terminology in current periodicals, thus making a valuable, really an essential, application of the principles here contended for: organization, and a common, well-chosen language.

We talk much of our serious responsibility for the molding of that intelligent citizenship which is essential to the permanence of democracy. If we do not assist the mind of the young citizenry entrusted to our guidance to organize its ideas, those ideas must be loose, scattered, chaotic, and hence of little use. Until we speak a common language, the confusion of tongues must remain a heavy handicap to progress.

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Grading the Pupils' Work

ARTHUR R. LEONARD, M. A., HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

When has a pupil in a High School history course done sufficient work or made sufficient progress to justify his being passed or promoted? The problem is one which all conscientious teachers have long been trying to solve. Recently several teachers of recognized ability were given the same set of examination papers to grade. To the amazement of every one there was discovered such divergence of judgment as grades of 27 and 88 on the same paper; 35 and 92 on another paper, and the like. This would seem to indicate pretty clearly that there is little uniformity even among good teachers. The well known fact that many pupils who receive low grades in school room work become very successful in business careers and the contrary is further evidence that we have not yet discovered any sure method for measuring the results of our teaching.

The problem was brought home to me with particular force several years ago when the term examination was abolished in the Columbus public schools. I suddenly discovered that I had unconsciously been trusting to that term examination as a sure test of whether my pupils had learned enough to entitle them to a credit in History. For a little while I was lost. On what basis henceforth could I justify my grading? Must I trust solely to my judgment of the quality of a pupil's work without any written answers to set questions to confirm that judgment?

Confronted by this disconcerting situation I evolved a new system which has stood the test of several years' experience, and which has produced some excellent results. After pretty careful self-examination, I came to the conclusion that what I desired of my pupils was not the memorizing of facts, but the ability to think in terms of cause and effect; not the accomplishment of certain set tasks, but the development of a love for historical reading and the ability to get practical results from that reading.

On such a basis then, I worked out my plans, developing them along the well known lines of factory piece work. In its completed form the plan offers to each pupil the opportunity to determine his own grade, because what he lacks in quality he can make up in quantity. Briefly, the system is as follows:

Daily recitations are graded on the supposition that each pupil will be called on fifty times during a term. A perfect recitation counts ten points. Each pupil can therefore secure 500 points on daily recitations by making fifty perfect recitations during the term. Of course, if the class is so large that he is called on only thirty-five times, we must assume fifteen more recitations equal to his average. Or if the class should be small enough to permit him to recite seventy-five times, we take two-thirds of the score as the proper number of points on daily recitations.

Monthly tests are conducted on a similar basis. Each question is evaluated, that is from five to thirty-five points are to be earned by satisfactory answers.

Enough questions are placed before the pupils to make a possible score of about 125 points, on the theory that even the best pupils will not have time actually to answer more than enough to earn 100 points.

Five such tests makes a possible score on tests of 500 points.

What we usually call "extra work" consists of maps, notebooks, library reading, and written themes on assigned subjects. A well made map earns 10 points; Each 100 pages of library reading reported on earns 10 points; a notebook may be worth from 25 to 100 points, depending upon the quantity and quality of work it contains. Written themes are valued at from 25 to 100 points. A written exercise which is merely a digest from one book is given the lower value, while one which represents comparison of several sources, and the pupil's own carefully reasoned conclusions, earns the highest score. The largest possible number of points which may be earned by extra work is 500.

It will be seen that the highest possible score for any pupil is 1500 points. At the beginning of the term the plan is explained, and a schedule posted on the bulletin board announcing that:

- 800 points earns a "passing" grade;
- 950 points earns a "satisfactory" grade;
- 1100 points earns an "excellent" grade;
- 1250 points earns a "special honor" grade.

A little study of the system will show that only a pupil capable of very good class room work can secure even a passing grade without doing some of the "extra work." Such pupils, of course, are never satisfied unless they get a much better grade. Consequently, nearly every pupil actually does a much larger amount of such work than under the old plan of trying to require a specified minimum. It is also possible for a very poor pupil to secure a passing grade if he is willing to do a large amount of "extra work"—but if he does this work he will certainly learn a great deal of history in the process. The plodder thus comes into his own. The only pupil who fails is the one who does not work—and until he learns to work he cannot succeed anywhere.

The system has worked more successfully than I had ever hoped for. The first decided improvement came from the fact that I was soon relieved of all the worry about pupils' grades. They quickly came to realize that the burden was on their shoulders,—that I did not "give" them grades but they "earned" them. Almost from the first week I was beset by pupils asking me to assign them subjects for history themes, or to tell them of good books in the library which they might read, and they literally begged to be allowed to draw maps to earn some more "points." I also found an unwonted eagerness to recite so as to gain additional "points" in that way.

Yes, you have guessed correctly. These were the pupils who will do good work under almost any system

of grading; though I must say it was a great relief to have even these pupils asking for work to do instead of merely accepting it as a part of what couldn't very well be avoided.

How did the poorer pupils respond? Here, too, was an amazing transformation. They were a little slower to realize what could be gained by a little work, but in the end the results were wonderful. Let me tell you of a few specific cases. There was Esther, who had failed in History twice and was taking it for the third time—a bright, quick girl, but flighty and unused to applying herself. After a long talk, in which she told me that she didn't like history and never could learn it, I persuaded her to try reading an easy biography—something like Hagedorn's *Life of Roosevelt*. She came back in a week or ten days ready to make her oral report. Listen to her comment, "That was a dandy book. Do I really get 40 points for reading a book like that? Tell me the name of another one quick." I led her on to more difficult books until she was reading and enjoying the biographies in the American Statesmen series—and the confidence she derived from doing that work well was gradually reflected in all her other work so that she earned a "satisfactory" grade. I wish you had seen the tears in her eyes when she realized that she had

not merely "passed," but had earned a place among the good pupils.

Then there was James. He was slow, almost stupid. He had never been known to make a good recitation in any subject during his high school course. His English was especially poor. By the time he came into my class he had become a chronic "flunker," and so discouraged that he no longer really tried to recite. He would get up and start a sentence—then end up, "Oh, I don't know," and sit down. I found that James liked to draw. I got him interested in drawing maps. Then I discovered a fondness for pictures, and he undertook to make a history notebook, illustrating it with pictures clipped from various sources. He painstakingly outlined chapter after chapter of the textbook in order to have a place to use his pictures. It was a splendid notebook; and in the making of it, James learned considerable history. He also did some library reading and improved sufficiently to earn a "passing" grade.

These will do for examples. In all my classes, the number of failures has fallen so low that some teachers accuse me of having lowered my standards; but I know that I am getting more and better work than I ever did under the old system.

The Teaching of a General Course in European History in Illinois High Schools

BY PRINCIPAL O. L. BOCKSTAHLER, HIGH SCHOOL, PALESTINE, ILLS.

Many people thought that when the American Historical Association Committee of seven recommended essentially the same programs as the N. E. A. Committee of ten that our troubles were at an end. Henceforth Ancient History to 800 would be taught in the ninth year, Medieval and Modern in the tenth, English History in the eleventh and American History in the twelfth. But our social sciences are not dead enough to be placed in plaster of paris casts. Numerous factors have been growing and working since 1893 and 1899, which show that at least the history teachers are very much alive. By no means the least of these factors seeking to stress the more modern movement and institutions was the great war. Another factor is the increased activity on the part of educators to make that strange leaven called education more plastic and fit it into the needs of the individual, community, state and nation.

Industrial conditions also come in for their share of the blame. Either large wages or unemployment cause many thousands of boys and girls to leave school early. These above all others perhaps need to know the development of democratic ideals and the meaning of democracy and their part in it. Therefore the N. E. A. Committee has reported favorably to introduce into the earlier years of the secondary schools those subjects of immediate importance.

These and other factors have brought these two schools of thinking closer together. Today we find

the greatest divergence in the objectives to be obtained from history teaching as well as confusion regarding the material taught and methods used. The situation is becoming chaotic. The colleges are thrusting more and more material into the high school and the high school into the grades. This, added to the ever-widening scope of the high school to meet the demands of the present day in vocational work is almost forcing the free elective system upon the secondary schools. Whether this is good or bad does not enter in here. It does, however, bear on the problem in hand because it is rapidly becoming more and more difficult for the average high school student to obtain a so-called general education.

The situation is not hopeless, merely transitory. Out of all this confusion, courses will arise based on those principles which recognize the true value of history and its relation to life and the rest of the educational world. There will be opposition and I have no doubt but that I will be taken to task as soon as this discussion is ended. But when Dr. Larson asked me to make this investigation I was no more in favor of the general course than some of you are. However, the following conditions now exist:

1. Many States (notably California and Minnesota) and National Committees are recommending the following arrangement:

Ninth year: Community Civics;
Tenth year: European History;

Eleventh year: American History;

Twelfth year: General Social Science of Civics, Economics and Sociology.

Thus only two years are devoted to history, one of which deals with American History. The average high school graduate in Illinois has credit for only one and a half years of history. American History is required by nearly every school. Since both State and university authorities presuppose that Ancient history precedes Medieval and Modern, it is the only European history studied. Admittedly it does not form a good basis for American history, neither has the student any conception of Greek and Roman civilization. By combining the two in one year a good conception of Greece and Rome is obtained as well as a sound and thoroughly grounded conception of the growth of the principles of democracy.

2. It is a well known fact that many pupils leave school before the fourth year of high school. The U. S. Bureau of Education reports that 67 per cent of all the pupils who enter school drop out at the end of the sixth grade. In Minneapolis it ran as high as 88 per cent. Seventy-five per cent of all the children in the United States over fourteen years of age are not in school. (Report of N. E. A. Com. 1919.) The first reason given is that of too limited a range of instruction. If these pupils get any history it certainly is better that they have Modern or American than Ancient, but the former is not available to them at that time as the course is now arranged. Admittedly a general course is better for them and the community in which they reside.

3. Commercial, technical and vocational high schools are eagerly adopting this course. Omaha, San Francisco and many others have already done so. Dean Marshall, of University of Chicago, recently pointed out before the National Association of Collegiate Business Schools that most of our organizers of business are self-appointed. Most of their education was obtained in secondary and elementary schools. In other words, the future course of study of the secondary schools must be for many completion schools. Therefore, the N. E. A. Committee recommended that subjects of immediate importance be introduced earlier into the secondary and elementary school work. Students in these schools do not have time, neither is it practical for them to first take Ancient history, then Medieval and Modern, followed by American. Illinois is only doing what other States have been doing for some time.

4. In night schools or continuation schools where students are taking advantage of the opportunity to get a more complete general education or better prepare themselves for their work this general course is the only feasible one.

5. There are in Illinois many small community and township high schools which have such a heavy schedule and such a small teaching force that they cannot offer three years of history. Hence they are offering this general course and a half or whole year of American history.

6. Such a general course gives a logical unity and natural sequence to the whole subject matter of

history. Mr. H. F. Taggart, Union High School, Santa Maria, California, in the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for November, 1921, describes this course as follows: "Since History is an evolutionary story of life development and the roots of the present lie so deep in the past, this course aims to help the student see some of those evolutionary changes that have led up to the present institutions." As I understand it, this evolutionary idea is uppermost in the mind of H. G. Wells, in his work, "The Outline of History."

There is a deep seated prejudice against such a course both in the universities and among teachers. But it is here to stay. I sent questionnaires to all the schools in Illinois and a number outside of the State, that offer such a course. All were enthusiastic about it and in no case was there any indication of returning to the two year system of European History. Since the curriculum already is overcrowded these schools argue it is one way of relieving the tension. As nearly as could be determined, about twenty-five schools adopted this course during the past two years. Twenty-two responded. From them these facts were obtained. About two hundred schools have adopted "Elson's Modern Times and the Living Past" the present year. "West's Modern Progress" is used in more than three hundred schools in the middle west.

In answer to the question, "Why did you adopt such a general course in European History?" LaSalle—Peru Township High School says, "For reasons of economy and because most students never get beyond Ancient History, and so never acquire a background for American History in the fourth year. We use loose leaf maps and in the second semester we have current topics." Rock Island reports that they have not adopted but are very favorably inclined towards it. Reddick Community High School says, "Because of a small faculty we cannot teach a very elastic curriculum. Elson gives all the Ancient History necessary and we shall not teach an extra year of it after the present year."

What others say:

"Thank you very much for the copy of your very excellent pamphlet 'The World Remapped.' It came to me yesterday and I have gone through it with a great deal of interest. I have only the highest praise for it. It is admirably planned and, so far as I have been able to test it, thoroughly accurate and up-to-date. You are to be congratulated on this excellent piece of work."

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Principal L. W. Chatham, of Pana Township High School reports that forty students asked to take modern history at the opening of school, but when told they must first take ancient, only ten registered. He then offered a general course and fifty-two enrolled. This course is proving so successful that if credit can be obtained for it, it will displace the older ancient and modern courses.

The principal of the University High School, Iowa City, Iowa, reports that they accepted the N. E. A. Committee 6-6 plan and also did it to meet the great need for understanding present day tendencies. They teach ancient history in the seventh and eighth grades.

The principal of Wood River thinks three or four units out of sixteen is too many in such a subject.

Oak Park reports that they have too many students who cannot afford to spend a year on ancient and another in modern and since American History is required, the general course meets the demand very well, which agrees with the Grand Rapids report.

All these schools require American History for graduation. Eight do not offer ancient history, and a number expect to discard it. Nine do not offer medieval and modern history. Two offer the general

course in the ninth year, seven in the tenth year, and four in the eleventh year. Those offering it in the ninth year admit that it is too heavy for Freshmen. Five use a notebook, but there is no uniformity of notebooks.

Summing up: This investigation has led to the following conclusions:

1. That the general course recommends itself especially to the kinds of schools mentioned above, namely, commercial, vocational, continuation and part time schools, night schools and schools with small teaching forces.

2. That the general course is preferable to either the ancient alone or modern alone, because it presents a more logical and evolutionary description of the growth of democracy.

3. That it is peculiarly adapted to schools situated in communities where for various reasons many students drop out before graduation from high school.

4. That where it is taught students should not be given credit in both the general course and either ancient or modern.

5. That universities should allow credit for it when taught in the tenth and eleventh years with some notebook work, and current topics the last semester.

What to Teach in History?

BY JOHN C. ALMACK, UNIVERSITY OF OREGON, EUGENE, OREGON

The two great problems of education are "What to Teach," and "How to Teach." Before the theory of mental discipline went into the discard, the latter was all important: "It did not make much difference what one taught, the method was everything." At no time, however, did this theory prove of importance in history, which indeed was introduced into the curriculum mainly because it provided "life" elements, and content largely lacking in the formal subjects of the time. Emphasized thus, as content has always been in history, with the modern trend toward socialization in all fields, more thought is being given to subject matter than to method, and the selection of materials of instruction is of foremost significance.

At present a controversy is in progress over the report of the committee on the reorganization of the social sciences. In this discussion, pronounced, but yet not widely separated points of view have been presented. The purpose of this paper is to set down some of the underlying principles at issue in the construction of a history curriculum from the point of view the public school teacher. The classifications offered are tentative, and are used to meet the necessities of discussion rather than because they represent clearly marked types. Three methods seem so marked as to warrant separate consideration.

The first of these has been designated as the method of minor instances, or isolation. It is based upon the theory that nothing should be taught that does not "function in the present," "meet a felt need"; that is, have social significance. The method followed in arriving at materials is said to be scientific: it is the

one that has come into universal use in other fields: spelling, arithmetic, and language. Briefly it consists in an analysis of historical matter in present existence, a tabulation of this matter, statistical treatment, and an assignment of the leading topics or items to the course of study, the values there assigned being in proportion to the number of times the given item was found. No suggestion regarding the organization of this material is given; it is assumed that it would be arranged in chronological order.

Now the ultimate result of the application of this method is a discreet series of events; abrupt breaks, gaps, discontinuity. History can no longer be called life, a reconstructed past, but at best is but fragmentary, affording evanescent, and dim glimpses of experience remote and unreal. The unity of human endeavor is lost, events stand out distinct, isolated. The true importance of an event can never be understood apart from its associated happenings, just as one cannot appreciate the height of a mountain peak apart from its range, and from other ranges, and these isolated bits of life are not peaks. Selected in this fashion an account of the past can be nothing but an account of minor instances.

The second method may be called the method of minor movements, or of distortion. It too is based upon a philosophy, which is that of one or more aspects of progress. History is conceived of as a dynamic thing, a social missionary. The adherents of this theory conceive that all good comes from let us say, the growth of political institutions, the increase of wealth and the means of producing

wealth, the rise of the frontier, or the expansion of the navy. Reduced to its lowest terms, we have partisan history, devoted to justifying or glorifying a creed, a political party, a king, a war, a policy.

No history than this can be less conducive to the development of broad intellectual and social attitudes. The historian becomes the giant, Procrustes, who lops off, warps, distorts, draws out the limbs of his facts to make them fit his purpose. He is no longer a scientist, but a partisan. Continuity, it is true, he secures; he achieves movement, but unity is lacking because not all of human life is portrayed. It is as if one thought to know the Mississippi through seeing two or three of its minor tributaries. History has lackeyed enough to narrow causes; it will continue to do so in the future no doubt, yet it is to be hoped, without the aid or connivance of historians. The principle on which material of this kind is selected is simply "Does it help to prove your case?" If so, well and good; if not, let us reject it. There is no place in the public schools for history that is anything more or less than the truth.

This true type of history may be called that of life unity. It is based upon the belief that many factors contribute to produce change—both for good and ill; that there is no abrupt break between one event and others; that the present is part of the past, and will be part of the future. On this basis, the great activities, interests, institutions of human life need representation; a continuous series in which the chief element in interpretation is relationship. This does not prevent organization on the longitudinal plan; in fact this is probably preferable to trying to drive too many events abreast. Something can be gained at least in emphasis by putting like things together, and more of the real truth will be given. By bringing these down to the present, an acquaintance with the whole scope and complexity of life may be gained.

Certain evident fallacies appear in connection with each of the methods advanced. None is more illusory than that of "felt need"—aside from the questionable English of the term. The great well-springs of human action are by no means all innate; many inhere in the objective aspects of life; many—and particularly those of history—consist in that immense body of custom, tradition, belief, and "memory." Aside from social pressure and example, a "felt need" of history would never come, a fact well borne out in the case of primitive peoples and illiterates.

Closely related is the belief that anything to gain admittance to the course of study must "function in the present." This theory is on the same level with that of the extreme evolutionists who believe that apart from conscious intelligent intervention and direction everything happens for the best. That the circumstance "functions in the present" is no evidence that it will function in the future; neither is failure of some past experience to function now evidence that it will never furnish example or motive for human conduct. In many instances what is needed is not the new, but the old; not invention, but restoration. However, the conception of "functioning in the

present" is in the majority of cases simply acknowledgement of existence, not of utility, and the vestigial remains long since outgrown would be suffered to survive.

With social values *per se* history has nothing to do. The applications, the generalizations belong to other fields. Sufficient is it if history presents the material for decision, leaving it to other subjects to point the moral, if indeed much moralizing is not a too great weariness of the flesh to be endured in the grades and high school. We are so "encompassed about with darkness" that he would be rash indeed who would pretend to select matter with undoubted social values, at least if he has come to the point in his thinking where he sees life as a process.

Some questions might, too, be raised about the validity of the scientific method when applied to the selection of history material. We may assume that this method works well in selecting words for spelling, arithmetic exercises, reading content, but it does not follow, however excellent the scheme is when applied to these subjects, that it will work as well or even at all in history. The facts are that in spelling one uses the spelling method as scientifically as possible, the arithmetic method in arithmetic, and assuredly he will have to use the historical method in history. The faith some have in a single device applicable to any situation and the determination to put it through at what cost is an admirable illustration of what George Santayana calls "bull psychology," to which few are not at some time immune. One running amuck under the domination of this idea has a fine time, but at the expense of considerable destruction.

Unquestionably historians have been willing to sacrifice something of the materials they have gathered together, and have realized their limitations in certain fields of historical research. The "fallacy of origins" seems clear; no longer is it believed essential that in order to comprehend a movement it is necessary (and it is known to be impossible) to trace it to the origin. But the historian does believe in dealing with the larger units of experience, not with isolated events, nor with single movements; he does believe in the scrupulous collection, mastery, comprehension, verification, and an evaluation of evidence. This is the science of history.

In the field of sociology much emphasis is placed upon social control in connection with the improvement of conditions. With this history while it remains history has nothing to do. Its practical function in the arena of progress is rather to give direction than to dictate, to show trends rather than to give impetus. In this sense it serves all sciences.

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The eugenist becomes alarmed over the passing of a great race; the historian shows that the Nordic peoples have never created a civilization. The racialist compares the intelligence of negroes and whites on the basis of results found from giving intelligence tests standardized for a selected group of whites; the historian shows the differences in culture and tradition; and it becomes clear that we cannot draw conclusions from the measurement of different things by the same scale. The evolutionist waxes enthusiastic over civilizations moving inevitably towards perfection; the historian points to civilizations that have decayed. Thus experience is the balance wheel, the sanifier, the cohesive force of society.

One of the amazing things which observation confirms is the mighty effort put forth by individuals, families, communities, nations, and races to live up to their traditions. The will to live is not the only moving force of humanity; there is in addition the will to live not below the past, but better. Thus history is the gathered momentum of civilization, moving resistlessly forward through the efforts of all those who have lived, and those who are living: Nothing less than the whole movement: political, economic, religious, educational, social, should be put before our youth in the schools; content selected by historians because it is history: a living continuous stream.

Devices for the History Teacher

BY FLORENCE JACOBI, DODGEVILLE, WIS.

There is no doubt but that the daily recitation carried out on the ordinary question and answer plan gets very monotonous not only for the student, but the teacher as well. Every history teacher is glad to receive suggestions at any time in order to make her class-room work not only instructive and vital, but also to arouse interest and alertness in a subject which to many students is a task, and one which is undertaken only because it is necessary for graduation. Of course, we must teach facts, but if we can "sugar coat" them and present them in an entertaining way, the daily lesson becomes less of a chore and more of a pleasure and inspiration.

These few suggestions are offered in a spirit of helpfulness and if they can be used by a single weary and tired teacher, or if they will make only a few students look forward to the history hour, then this paper will have fulfilled its mission.

1. Advertisement Contest—This device has been used in the Ancient History Class, either in Freshman or Sophomore years with much success. Sides are chosen, or if the sections are made up entirely of girls and boys, that is even better. The object of the contest is to see which of the two sides can find the greater number of advertisements having names referring to persons or places in Ancient History, such as: *Ajax* tires, *Venus* pencils, *Jordan* cars, *Bethlehem* Steel, *Florence* stoves, *Minerva* yarns, *Hebe* salt, *Aurora* waver, *Saxon* yarns, *Pluto* water, *Atlas* cement, and many more which can be found by looking through any of the current magazines and daily newspapers. A time limit is set and then on the last day of the contest advertisements, previously mounted on sheets of cardboard, usually two by four inches in size, are brought to school and displayed in the history room. Each side being given a definite place for their exhibit, only one advertisement of a kind is allowed and not only number but neatness and arrangement are also considered. Three judges are chosen from among the faculty members who are well acquainted with historic names and places and

who appreciate the effort put forth by the contestants. The losing side often treats the winning side.

2. Composite Scrap Book—It is often very difficult to find suitable pictures and illustrations to make clear certain points in history, and since "Many hands make light work" this plan was devised and carried out with very good results. A long list of subjects is offered the particular class making the scrap book and each child is requested to make his choice of one for his particular page.

Topics such as these are given to an American History Class:—1. Colonial Homes and Furniture; 2. Colonial Occupations and Industries; 3. Colonial Methods of Travelling; 4. Costumes during Revolutionary Period; 5. Generals of the Revolution; 6. Washington (Scenes of his Life); 7. First Continental Congress; 8. Signing Declaration of Independence; 9. Westward Expansion; 10. War of 1812; and others representative of various periods of American History. Students are urged to bring the pictures they may find to the teacher, who gives them to the right person.

The pictures are mounted on heavy cardboard about 18 by 24 inches, but on one side only and can be either bound together or not just as the teacher wishes. The pages can then be catalogued and filed in the school library where they will be available not only to the History teacher but to English and grade teachers as well.

3. Clippings Bureau—Since current events have become an essential part of the history work, the teacher must be ever on the alert to find suitable topics for her classes. Often an item is found which does not bear directly on the subject under discussion but should be kept for future reference. Children, too, often bring items or clippings which are useful, but if one does not have a definite place for them, they only tend to become a nuisance. In order to make use of such items as:—"Death of Cardinal Gibbons," newspaper sketches of the "President's Cabinet," "Death of John Burroughs," "Germany's

Indemnity Problems," some particular class is assigned the task of collecting and mounting them on heavy, brown manilla paper, each under a definite title. These are then catalogued and placed on some definite shelf in the school library where they are available when needed. All material should be inspected by the teacher before mounting in order to cull out unnecessary and superfluous items.

4. History Game of "Authors"—For this game cards are made resembling those used in playing "Authors," only historic names, places and dates are used instead. The students make their own cards, each being given a definite subject, person or country, for which he makes four cards, each card containing four facts as follows:

NAPOLEON I

- A. Commander of army in Italy, 1796.
- B. Emperor of France, 1807.
- C. Defeated at Waterloo, 1815.
- D. Banished to St. Helena, 1815.

NAPOLEON I

- C. Defeated at Waterloo, 1815.
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NAPOLEON I

- D. Banished to St. Helena, 1815.
- A. Commander of army in Italy, 1796.
- B. Emperor of France, 1807.
- C. Defeated at Waterloo, 1815.

Where the class is large it is advisable to divide it into two groups, with no more than ten in each group. In that case two sets can be made for the same day and after playing for part of the recitation hour with one set, the groups may then exchange cards. The cards must be uniform in size and the same kind of paper should be used for all. It is best to play this game after some particular period in history has been studied, as French Revolution, Napoleonic Era, or Revolutions of 1848, as they furnish a review of the facts learned in class; and in this way give definite ideas of the various subjects named on the cards. The game proceeds the same as "Authors" and the one having the greatest number of books at the end of the period being the winner.

5. Historic Novels—The advisability of using historic novels in class room work has been discussed and although condemned in some instances, yet as a device to relieve monotony or as a means to make clear a particular point in the lesson, surely it is not altogether wrong. What better describes the French Revolution than selections from "Tale of Two Cities," or what gives a clearer idea of slave life in the South than "Uncle Tom's Cabin," "The Crisis"? or of "Carpet-bag" government than "The Clansman"? Who does not enjoy "A Friend of Caesar" for descriptions of Roman Life, or "Ivanhoe" for the Norman Period in England?

Often on Friday afternoons when some class is studying one of the various subjects mentioned above, the students are asked to bring certain books to class and to read some passage describing a particular point that has been discussed during the week. Even though we know many of the so-called historic novels are not based absolutely on the truth, yet if they awaken an interest in good books or make the people of past times alive, and not just flat names in the text-book, surely something has been accomplished.

6. Spell Down—This game is used for review, and to fix certain facts, names and dates in the student's mind. Two sides are chosen and the game proceeds the same as an ordinary spell-down except that names and dates in the forms of questions are used in place of words. It creates much rivalry especially between girls and boys.

7. Cartoons—It seems a pity not to make use, in some way, of the many excellent cartoons with which our magazines and papers abound. Thus, often for a Friday's lesson, the students of a certain class are asked to find cartoons illustrating some point discussed during the week. They then write up a detailed account of that particular subject, using the cartoon as an illustration. It develops originality and resourcefulness, and it is surprising what excellent results one may obtain from this device.

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Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,
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Daniel H. Burnham, Architect, Planner of Cities.

By Charles Moore. Houghton Mifflin Company,
Boston. 1921. Vol. I, 260 pp.; vol. II, 238 pp.
\$20.00.

Architecture is the one field of art in which America has won a distinctive and important place. This contribution has been made chiefly during the past half century and its two leading figures have been Charles F. McKim and Daniel H. Burnham. The latter, though less gifted purely as an artist, was a very remarkable executive and a leader of magnetic and dominating personality, with an energy and determination that overcame the handicaps of scanty education and lack of travel until middle age, and carried him to a foremost position in his difficult profession.

Mr. Burnham designed a number of important commercial buildings including the department stores of Marshall Field in Chicago, Filene in Boston, Wanamaker in Philadelphia and New York; and the Flat Iron Building in New York and the Union Station in Washington, D. C. It was he who saw the great artistic possibilities of the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893 and planned and directed the co-operative work of the unusual group of architects, sculptors, painters and landscape artists that resulted in a unified scheme of ordered and harmonious beauty.

In the hard struggle to preserve and develop L'Enfant's famous plan for civic beauty in our national capital Mr. Burnham proved himself a splendid fighter as well as a competent artist; and he was later employed on a number of very important enterprises in city planning, notably in Cleveland, in San Francisco after the earthquake, in Manila, and in Chicago.

Mr. Moore, who had the advantage of ten years of close association with Mr. Burnham in connection with his work for Washington, sketches very lightly his early career and remarkable rise to eminence, and gives no adequate account or critical estimate of Burnham as an architect. His treatment of other phases of the story, however, is competent and interesting. The two volumes are handsomely made, printed from large type and supplied with numerous artistic illustrations including several large color prints of unusual delicacy and beauty, most of them after Jules Guérin.

G. M.

World History. By Hutton Webster. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1921. xxxi, 753 pp. \$2.12.

This book represents the effort of yet another experienced textbook writer to produce the type of book demanded by those high schools which are offering courses in world history. Professor Webster's newest work follows closely the plan of writers earlier in the field; it cannot be said to present anything new, either in content or in point of view. Verily program makers have propounded a problem of the first magnitude and great will be the renown of him who,

breaking with tradition, boldly hews for himself a new path. If world history is to be taught as a unit, if it is to give the youthful student a view of the "progress of civilization," comprehensive, intelligible, and enlightening, the old encyclopedic text must be transformed. Perhaps after all the way already pointed out by Wells or, better still, by Van Loon may be the one that leads onward to the much desired goal.

Of its kind, however, this book is quite up to standard. It is accurate and exceedingly complete; every European country, even Norway, receives some attention, and interesting and unusual information is given about such remote regions as Oceania and Australia. The volume contains a bibliography, a number of colored maps, about fifty prints, useful charts and an excellent table of dates and many rather poorly executed illustrations. Doubtless in the hands of a teacher with big ideas and a far vision, this carefully prepared text will be found very useful.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER.

Maryland State Normal School.

Near Eastern Affairs and Conditions. By Stephen Panarettoff, New York. Macmillan Co., 1922. 216 pp. \$2.25.

This is a series of seven lectures delivered at the Institute of Politics, Williams College, in which Professor Panarettoff gives an outline of the struggles of the Balkan Christians against the Turk on political, religious and educational issues, with a summary of the part other European nations have played in determining the course of events in the Near East, and concluding with the Balkan Confederation and the decisions of the Peace Conference upon it.

"The Historical Sketch of the Balkan Slavs" is very well done, and impresses the reader with its atmosphere of moderation, an atmosphere with which the rest of the book is in keeping, despite the natural Bulgarian sympathies of the author. Particularly valuable are the chapters on "Church Organization and Literature" and "Education in the Near East," providing elementary and basic facts about comparatively little known matters, besides attacking successfully various misconceptions. Concerning the chapter devoted to the "Political Progress of the Balkan States" much the same might be said, while that on "Efforts at Reforming Turkey" is one that should be carefully read by all the pro-Turks in the world or by those who have shut their eyes to the true character of Turkish ideas. The two concluding lectures, the "European Powers and the Near East" and the "Balkan Confederation and the Peace Conference," possess many of the excellencies of the preceding chapters and are written with the same studied restraint that we have observed before. Whenever Mr. Panarettoff develops an argument he is dispassionate and free of bitterness though emphatic on certain points, particularly in connection with the Treaty of Neuilly. His style is simple, clear and direct. The book is readable and interesting. To the general reader or one unfamiliar with details of the history of the Balkans it will give an excellent idea

of the early struggles and ought to make possible a sympathetic understanding and patience with those peoples who are so new to political responsibility.

There is an index. Maps are lacking. In view of the fact that the author is his own authority for the greater part of his statements, the absence of a bibliography is not so much felt, but a selected list on Bulgaria would not have been out of place.

A. I. ANDREWS.

Tufts College.

Book Notes

Among the numerous recent books on Japan, Mr. K. K. Kawakami's *What Japan Thinks*, presents a welcome variation in giving us a number of articles by Japanese writers for Japanese periodicals, with no thought of foreign readers, and representing varied opinions and points of view and subjects of controversy. Democracy and liberalism, monarchy and imperialism, the Monroe Doctrine and the League of Nations, "Militarism and Navalism in America," "The War's Effect upon the Japanese Mind," and "Illusions of the White Race," are among the topics discussed. (The Macmillan Co., New York, 1921, 237 pp. \$2.00.)

"The Modern Library" series which began with a dozen volumes four years ago has now grown to more than a hundred titles, representing a high standard of excellence, a half dozen nations, and varied literary types and themes—fiction, drama, folk tales, criticism, essays, art, philosophy, science, politics, social problems. Their attractive format, limp binding, and pocket size, have contributed to the popularity of this really important series. (Boni and Liveright, New York, 95 cents.) Among the recent additions are a dozen essays on the advances of *Contemporary Science*, including the Army intelligence tests and "Conceptions and Misconceptions in Psychoanalysis"; and Sherwood Anderson's *Winesburg, Ohio*.

Sea Power in the Pacific (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1921, 334 pp. \$5.00. 4 maps and a chart), by Hector C. Bywater, is a searching and critical study by an authoritative British expert, impartial in tone and thorough in treatment. A statement of the naval situation in the world since the Great War is followed by a brief but careful summary of the causes of friction between the United States and Japan, a detailed account of the naval resources of the two Powers, a discussion of strategical problems and possible features and developments of a war in the Pacific, and a very illuminating chapter on "War or Peace? Political and Economic Factors." Mr. Bywater assures the people of Japan and the United States that a war between the two countries "would be a terrible and protracted struggle, so full of novel elements and uncertainties that those who have studied the matter most carefully are the least disposed to predict the ultimate issue." The book is of great value in estimating the merits and importance of the agreements reached at the Washington Conference.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Feb. 25, 1922 to Mar. 25, 1922

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Clayton, William. William Clayton's journal; a daily record of the journey of the original company of Mormon pioneers from Nauvoo, Ill., to the valley of the Great Salt Lake. Salt Lake City, Utah: The Desert News, 44 E. South Temple St. 376 pp. \$2.00.
- Cronan, Rudolf. The discovery of America and the land-fall of Columbus. N. Y. [Author]; 340 East 198th St. 89 pp. \$5.00.
- Fleming, Vivian M. Historic periods of Fredericksburg [Va.], 1608-1861. Fredericksburg, Va. [Author], 503 Hanover St. 35 pp. 50c.
- Gabriel, Ralph H. The evolution of Long Island. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 194 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.50.
- Harrison, Francis B. The cornerstone of Philippine independence. N. Y.: The Century Co. 343 pp. \$3.00.
- Hill, Charles E. Leading American treaties. N. Y.: Macmillan. 399 pp. \$3.00.
- Kelso, Robert W. The history of public poor relief in Massachusetts, 1620-1920. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 200 pp. \$2.50.
- Trask, Louise B., compiler. Indians of North America, a list of books for children. St. Louis, Mo.: St. Louis Pub. Library. 8 pp.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Bishop, M. C. and Robinson E. K. Practical map exercises and syllabus in ancient history. Boston: Ginn & Co. 31 pp. 56c.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Dietz, Frederick C. English government finance 1485-1558. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 245 pp. \$2.25.
- Ditchfield, Peter H. The city of London. N. Y.: Macmillan. 126 pp. (1 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
- Mumby, Frank A. The fall of Mary Stuart, a narrative in contemporary letters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 368 pp. \$5.00.
- Salzman, Louis F. Hastings [The Story of the English Towns.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 125 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
- Stokes, Henry P. A short history of the Jews in England. N. Y.: Macmillan. 122 pp. \$2.00.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Alonza, Encarnación. Some French contemporary opinions of the Russian revolution of 1905. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 117 pp. (2½ p. bibl.). \$1.25.
- Dukes, Sir Paul. Red dusk and the morrow; adventures and investigations in red Russia. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co. 322 pp. \$3.50.
- Korff, Sergiei A. The history of Russia from earliest times; a preliminary syllabus. N. Y.: Inst. of Internat. Education, 419 W. 117th St. 14 pp. 25c.
- Korff, Sergiei A., Baron. Russia's foreign relations during the last half-century. N. Y.: Macmillan. 227 pp. \$2.25.
- Pribram, Alfred F. Secret treaties of Austria-Hungary; 1879-1914. Vol. 2. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press. 271 pp. \$3.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION.

- Meehan, Thomas F., editor. History of the Seventy-eighth Division in the World War, 1917, 1918, 1919. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 243 pp. \$3.00.
- O'Ryan, John F. The story of the 27th Division. In 2 vols. N. Y.: Wynkoop, Hallenbeck, Crawford Co., 80 Lafayette St. 1160 pp. \$14.75.
- U. S. Treaties. Treaty between the United States and Germany, restoring friendly relations, signed at Berlin, August 25, 1921. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 10 pp.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Heywood, William. A history of Pisa, eleventh and twelfth centuries. N. Y.: Macmillan. 292 pp. (6 p. bibl.). \$8.00.

MISCELLANEOUS

American Geographical Society of N. Y. A description of early maps, originals and fac-similes, 1452-1611. N. Y.: The American Geographical Society of N. Y., B'way and 156th St. 20 pp. 50c.

Delahaye, Hippolytus. The work of the Bollandists through three centuries, 1615-1915. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press. 269 pp. \$2.50.

McCabe, Joseph. The evolution of civilization. N. Y.: Putnam. 138 pp. \$1.50.

Reinsch, Paul S. An American diplomat in China. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co. 396 pp. \$4.00.

BIOGRAPHY

Bradford, Gamaliel. American portraits, 1875-1900. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 248 pp. \$3.50.

Depew, Chauncey M. My memories of eighty years. N. Y.: Scribner. 417 pp. \$4.00.

Brown, Charles R. Lincoln, the greatest man of the nineteenth century. N. Y.: Macmillan. 77 pp. \$1.00.

Abbott, Lawrence F. Impressions of Theodore Roosevelt. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 315 pp. 90c.

Wood, George A. William Shirley, governor of Massachusetts, 1741-1756. Vol. 1. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 433 pp. \$4.50.

Washington, George. President Washington's diaries, 1791-1799. Summerfield, N. C.: J. A. Hoskins, P. O. Box 63. 100 pp. \$1.50.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

Bryce, James, Viscount. International relations. N. Y.: Macmillan. 275 pp. \$2.50.

Capes, William P. The modern city and its government. N. Y.: Dutton. 269 pp. (6¾ p. bibl.) \$5.00.

Growth, (The) of political liberty; a source book selected and arranged by Ernest Rhys. N. Y.: Dutton. 337 pp. \$1.00.

Hyde, Charles C. International law chiefly as interpreted and applied by the United States. In 2 vols. Boston: Little Brown. 488, 925 pp. \$25.00 set.

Walsh, Edmund A., editor. The history and nature of international relations. N. Y.: Macmillan. 299 pp. \$2.25.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

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GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

The Discovery of History. W. M. Flinders Petrie (*Living Age*, April 8). From *Discovery*, a British scientific monthly, March.

Education for Internationalism. William W. Davies. (*Hibbert Journal*, January).

The Teaching of Universal History. F. S. Preston (*Parents' Review*, March).

A Concept of History, II. Claude C. H. Williamson (*Parents' Review*, March).

The Use of History for Research in Theoretical Sociology. Thomas D. Eliot (*American Journal of Sociology*, March).

On the Sources and Methods of Research in Economic History. W. L. Westermann (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).

On Diplomats. Sigmund Münz (*Contemporary Review*, March).

Religion and Philosophy in Ancient China (concluded). Hardin T. McClelland (*Open Court*, March).

The School for Ambassadors. J. J. Jusserand (*American Historical Review*, April). Presidential address before the American Historical Association.

Background of the Roman Revolution. L. B. Mitchell (*Classical Journal*, March).

The Profession of Law in Rome. G. A. Harrer (*Classical Journal*, March).

Notes on the History of Military Medicine (continued). Lieut. Col. Fielding H. Garrison (*Military Surgeon*, April). VI. The 17th century.

France, Liberator of Nations. Charles D. Hazen (*North American Review*, April).

Bismarck's Vindication. William H. Dawson (*Fortnightly Review*, March).

Pope Benedict XV., the Popes Benedict, and the Papacy. J. W. Poynter (*Fortnightly Review*, March).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The Early English Statutes. Joseph H. Beale (*Harvard Law Review*, March). Before 1600.

On the Term "British Empire." James T. Adams (*American Historical Review*, April).

Some Typical Contributions of English Sociology to Political Theory. Harry E. Barnes (*American Journal of Sociology*, March).

The English-Scottish Union. Florence Withrow (*Canadian Magazine*, March).

Old Inns of London. Margaret Bell (*Canadian Magazine*, March).

Eton, Then and Now. Blanche W. Cornish (*National Review*, March).

The Parochial Law of Tithes: Its Scottish Origin and Adoption by Europe and England. Thomas Miller (*Juridical Review*, March).

The Scottish Court of Admiralty: a Retrospect. A. R. G. McMillan (*Juridical Review*, March). I. History.

Some Canadian Constitutional Problems. Clifford Sifton (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).

The Last of the Old Tories: a Review of the Earlier Career of Robert Third Marquis of Salisbury. J. L. Morison (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).

Immigration and Settlement in Canada, 1812-1820. A. R. M. Lower (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).

Studies in Irish Monetary History, V. Rev. P. Nolan (*Irish Ecclesiastical Review*, March).

THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

Civilised Warfare and Civil Engineers. George K. Scott Moncrieff (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).

The Battle of Blanc Mont Ridge. Maj. Edwin N. McClellan (*Marine Corps Gazette*, March).

The Champagne-Marne Defensive (continued). Capt. J. S. Switzer, jr. (*Infantry Journal*, March).

The American Expeditionary Forces in Europe, 1917-1918 (continued). Lieut. Col. Hermann von Giehrl (*Infantry Journal*, March).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

The Meeting of the American Historical Association at St. Louis. J. F. Jameson (*American Historical Review*, April).

State History, II. Dixon R. Fox (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).

Women and History. Mrs. Franc L. Adams (*Michigan History Magazine*, VI. No. 1).

The Calvinist Mind in America. Dixon R. Fox (*Quarterly Journal of the N. Y. State Historical Association*, July).

The Spanish Missions of California. Don Juan Riano N. Y. *Genealogical and Biographical Record*, April).

An American Eccentric. (*Bulletin of New York Public Library*, February). Lord Timothy Dexter.

The Province Galley of Massachusetts, 1694-1716 (continued). Harriet S. Tapley (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, April).

Salem Vessels and their Voyages (continued). George G. Putnam (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, April).

The Huguenots, the First Settlers in the Province of New York. Ralph LeFevre (*Quarterly Journal of the N. Y. State Historical Association*, July).

A Rough Secret Journal of the Continental Congress. John C. Fitzpatrick (*American Historical Review*, April).

Revolutionary Camps of the Hudson Highlands. William S. Thomas (*Quarterly Journal of the N. Y. State Historical Association*, July).

Last Days at Mount Vernon. Charles Moore (*D. A. R. Magazine*, April).

- Jay's Treaty and the Northwest Boundary Gap. Samuel F. Bemis (*American Historical Review*, April).
- American "Good Offices" in Asia. Tyler Dennett (*American Journal of International Law*, January).
- American Diplomacy and the Financing of China. George A. Finch (*American Journal of International Law*, January).
- The Protection of American Citizens in China: Extraterritoriality. Benj. H. Williams (*American Journal of International Law*, January).
- Historic Spots in Wisconsin. W. A. Titus (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March). IX. Grand Butte des Morts.
- Some Marriages in Old Detroit. William R. Riddell (*Michigan History Magazine*, VI. No. 1).
- The Services and Collections of Lyman Copeland Draper. Louise P. Kellogg (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- A Monroe Doctrine Divided: Suggestion for Presidential Message. Charles E. Chapman (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).
- America's First Bathtub. George A. Reid (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, July).
- Wisconsin's Saddest Tragedy. M. M. Quaife (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March). Murder of Charles Arndt, member of the Territorial Council.
- Memories of a Busy Life. Gen. Charles King (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- The Trent Affair of 1861. F. Landon (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
- Ireland and the American Civil War. Richard J. Purcell (*Catholic World*, April).
- Grant, after the War. O. T. Corson (*Ohio Educational Monthly*, March).
- The Trial and Execution of the Lincoln Conspirators. R. A. Watts (*Michigan History Magazine*, VI. No. 1).
- The Life and Letters of Walter H. Page (continued). Burton J. Hendrick (*World's Work*, April).
- The American Intervention in Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Carl Kelsey (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, March).

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